THE

DAILY MAIL YEAR BOOK

FOR

1909

NINTH YEAR OF ISSUE.

EDITED BY

PERCY L. PARKER.

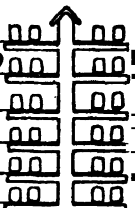
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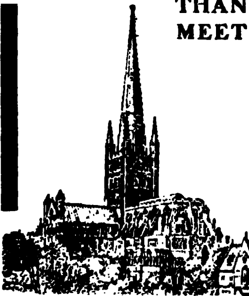
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THIS BOOK AT A GLANCE.

The note of the year 1908 has been one of unrest and disquiet. At home and abroad, in politics, in society, and in religion the Time Spirit has moved with rapid and effective steps. The quickening quality of the yeast of new ideas has been intense, and its influence world-wide. Something of this ferment is reflected in these pages, too few though they are for their purpose.

For it is the object of this book to provide the reader of the paper, the student of politics and life, and the man who desires to know, with the essential facts necessary to understand the chief Questions of the Day—the things that do matter, and that do make for the health of the State.

This is the ninth year in which the Editor has produced this book, and this year, as always, it is a new book. It deals with the problems of the day, and those which are on the horizon.

Only a reference to the complete **Index** can show how many subjects are dealt with in this book. These are grouped into **ten sections,** as shown at the head of the Index.

The book opens with **three important and special articles** dealing with three great issues of the year:

1. **The Chess-Board of Europe: Some Dramatic Problems in the Game.** By an Inside Watcher.

2. **The Awakening of the East: The Demand for Representative Government in China, India, Egypt, Persia, and Turkey.** By Archibald R. Colquhoun.

3. **The Problem of Unemployment: The Nature of the Problem, and Suggested Remedies.** By J. Ramsay Macdonald, M.P.

Attention is also called to the **Frontispiece,** which illustrates two of these articles.

Among many other topics dealt **with** are these:

The Unemployed.
Right to Work.
Unskilled Labour.
Afforestation.
Home Workers.
Women's Wages.
Sweated Industries.
Extent of Poverty.
How People Live.
Cost of Living.
Old Age Pensions.
Invalidity Pensions.
Eight Hours Bill.
Wages, Hours, Strikes.
To Settle Trade Disputes.
Trade Unionism.
Progress of Socialism.
Socialism and Liberty.
Anti-Socialist Union.
Ennoblement of Mankind.
Race Suicide.
Cancer: Consumption.
Housing and Town Planning.
The Children's Charter.
Case for Tariff Reform.
Case for Free Trade.
Licensing Bill.
Drink Problem.
Crime of the Country.
Imprisonment of Debtors.
To Save Daylight.
London's Government.
Taxation of Land Values.
Land Problems.
Irish Affairs: Home Rule.
Disestablishment.
Germany's Finance.
Parliament and Politics.
Labour Party and I.L.P.
Second Chamber Problem.
Electoral Reform.
Woman's Suffrage.
Biographies of People.
Peerage and Commons.
Travel and Traffic.
Airships: Turbines.
Motor-cars: Roads.
Railway Problems.
Railway Nationalisation.
Canals: Tramways.
Romance of Shipping.
The Empire's Trade.
Empire's Chief Traders.
Indian Problems.
Colonial Politics.
Socialists and the Empire.
Foreign Affairs.
Drama of the Balkans.
Austria's Perfidy.
Kaiser and His Parliament.
England and Germany.
Persia: Morocco.
Congo: Egypt.
Obligatory Arbitration.
A Diary of Treaties.
Educational Facts.
Primary Schools.
Secondary Schools.
The Education Bills.
Cowper-Temple Teaching.
Moral Instruction Inquiry.
Statistics of the Churches.
Cheapening of Literature.
Irish Universities.
Trade Statistics.
Our Imports and Exports.
Our Trade Rivals.
Growth of Our Trade.
Agricultural Matters.
Interest on the Soil.
How to Educate Farmers.
How to Obtain Small Holdings.
Agricultural Co-operation.
Our Great Industries.
New Patent Act.
Fight for the Metals.
Development in Electricity.
Census of Production.
United States Prosperity.
Trade of Japan.
Financial Affairs.
The National Wealth.
National Balance-sheet.
A Pension Budget.
Problem of the Super-Tax.
Millionaires' Wills.
The Municipal Purse.
London's Finance.
Naval and Military Matters.
British Naval Programme.
Germany's Naval Programme.
Mr. Haldane's Army Scheme.
In Case of Invasion.
World's Armies and Navies.
Calendar.

The Editor welcomes all suggestions for improving and correcting the Year Book.

Carmelite House, London, E.C., Nov. 19th, 1908.

INDEX TO THE DAILY MAIL YEAR BOOK.

SECTIONS.

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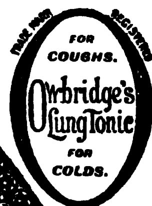
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JOHN BULL

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Looks belie people. Only those who are ill know how much suffering there is. How we wish our heads didn't ache! Or we wish food was enjoyable and would digest—wish we hadn't the pain, the flatulence, and the acidity that follows eating.

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MOTHER

SEIGEL'S

THE COMING OF THE NEW M.P.s



THE MOST STRIKING FEATURE IN CONTEMPORARY HISTORY IS THE DEMAND NOW BEING MADE BY MANY OF THE ORIENTAL PEOPLES FOR A REPRESENTATIVE FORM OF GOVERNMENT. So writes Mr. ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN in his article, "THE AWAKENING OF THE EAST." See page 5. Here we see types of the M.P.s-to-be.

Specially drawn for the Daily Mail Year Book, 1909.

SERJEANT-AT-ARMS with mace LAW AND ORDER	THE ORIGINAL M.P. 20th CENTURY MODEL	RUSSIA M.P.	TURKEY M.P.	PERSIA M.P.	INDIA M.P.	EGYPT M.P.	CHINA M.P.

O FOR THE COMING OF THAT GLORIOUS TIME WHEN, PRIZING KNOWLEDGE AS HER NOBLEST WEALTH AND BEST PROTECTION, THIS IMPERIAL REALM, WHILE SHE EXACTS ALLEGIANCE, SHALL ADMIT AN OBLIGATION ON HER PART TO TEACH THEM WHO ARE BORN TO SERVE HER AND OBEY.

Wordsworth.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

ENGLAND & WALES

NUMBER OF CHILDREN ON REGISTERS

ENGLAND & WALES 5978967

SCOTLAND 806737

IRELAND 728167

SCOTLAND

IRELAND

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

ENGLAND & WALES

ENGLAND & WALES 20907

IRELAND 8602

SCOTLAND 3262

IRELAND

SCOTLAND

4000

[illegible]

THE MOST POTENT FACTOR IN MORAL EDUCATION IS THE PERSONALITY OF THE TEACHER, WHETHER HE WHO TEACHES BE PARENT OR TEACHER IN THE NARROWER SENSE OF THE WORD, OR EMPLOYER, OR ELDER COMRADE IN HOME, SCHOOL, OR PLACE OF BUSINESS.

Prof. Sadler.

HIGHER EDUCATION

ENGLAND

EXCEPT MONMOUTHSHIRE

		Students
A	9 [illegible]	15355
B	6 [illegible]	3505
C	41 Technical & Agricultural Colleges	3117
D	218 [illegible]	41430
E	9 Public Schools	4735
F	1451 Secondary Schools	164579
G	5316 Evening Schools	708388

WALES

WITH MONMOUTHSHIRE

		Students
A	4 University Colleges	1326
B	4 Technical & Agricultural Colleges	227
C	6 Schools of Art	982
D	89 [illegible]	10654
E	442 [illegible]	40085

SCOTLAND

		Students
A	4 [illegible]	6933
B	1 [illegible] College	212
C	16 Technical & Agric. [illegible]	13567
D	5 [illegible]	1220
E	13 [illegible]	2195
F	157 [illegible]	19319
G	55 Secondary [illegible]	18210
H	748 [illegible]	95669

IRELAND

		Students
A	1 University	1241
B	5 University Colleges	1233
C	95 Tech & Agr. Colleges	1030
D	3 Schools [illegible]	491
E	7 [illegible]	1104
F	362 [illegible]	18103
G	552 [illegible]	15032

THE CHESS-BOARD OF EUROPE:

"The Chess-board of Europe appears to be on the eve of a crisis. What men are guiding the destinies of Europe?" See page 1. Here are sketches of the heads of the various States.

SERVIA

DENMARK

SPAIN

BULGARIA

HOLLAND

SWEDEN

ITALY

AUSTRIA

TURKEY

GERMANY

ENGLAND

FRANCE

RUSSIA

BELGIUM

Specially drawn for the Daily Mail Year Book,

THE CHESS-BOARD OF EUROPE. SOME DRAMATIC PROBLEMS IN THE GAME.

582

By An INSIDE WATCHER.

The Chess-Board of Europe appears to be on the eve of a crisis.

Thirty-eight years have passed since the last great convulsion, in which the new German Empire came to the birth at Versailles. Thirty-eight years of comparative peace—for the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, the Spanish-American War of 1898, the South African War, and the Russo-Japanese War scarcely troubled the tranquillity of Europe as a whole.

What forces are working consciously or blindly towards an upheaval? What men are, wittingly or unwittingly, guiding the destinies of Europe? Where, and in whose hands, are the levers that move the mass?

The scrutinising eye sees no lever, but a brake—the fear of war, baptised "love of peace." Bismarck was the last European statesman who deliberately sought war and pursued it. His disciples have at times used the threat of war as a card in their game, but they have never ventured to let the cannon speak.

In 1905, when M. Delcassé fell amidst a forty-eight hours' Parisian panic engineered from Berlin, Prince Henckell-Donnersmarck was sent by Germany to tell President Loubet that if Delcassé's policy were persisted in there would be war, and that though England might destroy the German Fleet, Germany would fetch from Paris two millions of indemnity for every million she might lose at sea. Simultaneously the German banking-house of Bleichröder organised, through Franco-Jewish bankers, a panic on the French Bourse, and the German Press Bureau, through its many channels in the French Press, poured dismay into the hearts of the French people.

During the Algeciras Conference similar tactics were employed, but unsuccessfully. France had in the meantime spent £20,000,000 on her eastern frontier, and was ready to resist attack—a circumstance that did not prevent the Emperor William from remarking to a Transatlantic diplomatist at Berlin: "After all, nothing can prevent me from marching to Paris if I ish."

The relationship of Germany to France remains the most sensitive point in European politics, and the Treaty of Frankfurt, that sanctioned the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine, is still to-day a danger-signal beyond which there is risk of collision. When, in 1900, the German Emperor discussed with M. de Muravieff and M. Delcassé the humiliation of England by Russo-Franco-German intervention in the South African War, he demanded a French guarantee of the territorial status quo, or, in other words, a voluntary French ratification of the Treaty of Frankfurt. France rejected the demand, and the Emperor William turned "Queen's evidence" against her. Does France, therefore, desire war with Germany, and is "revenge" still the motive of French statesmen? By no means. But **France is not minded to confer retroactive legitimacy upon a violent amputation against which the conscience of every Frenchman still protests.**

Germany, for her part, would gladly make friends with France both in order to isolate England and to obtain free and official access to the "woollen stocking of Jacques Bonhomme"; while, in France, there exists a party of reactionaries and financiers willing to come to terms with Germany. The banks in which this party is interested have already invested many millions of French savings in German industries, and though the French Government still prevents German

securities from being quoted on the Paris Bourse, it cannot, and maybe does not, care to prevent French capital from finding its way into Germany.

France, indeed, is becoming increasingly the banker of Europe. "Jacques Bonhomme" is a sleeping partner in many an enterprise in Germany, Russia, Italy, Turkey, Austria-Hungary, and the Balkans. His "stocking" acts as an effective sheath for his bayonet. In clanking her sabre, Germany appeals to the French investor's fear of the risks inseparable from war; and when she not only clanks but brandishes her blade she knows full well that a thousand interested eyes are watching to catch its terrific glitter and to flash pusillanimous counsels along every wire controlled by cosmopolitan finance and its ally, cosmopolitan journalism.

Since the moment when France, disquieted by the disasters of Russia, and disliking the prospect of a prolonged tête-à-tête with Germany, drew near to England, and found in England men sufficiently enlightened to see the supreme importance of the moment and to grasp her proffered hand, **the chief active and positive force in Europe has been the determination of Germany to break the Anglo-French understanding.** That understanding had enabled Europe to breathe more freely than at any time since 1870. To this extent it had **destroyed the military dictatorship of Germany**—a dictatorship long resented by Continental States, and regarded with jealous suspicion by England. Englishmen ought, nevertheless, to understand its nature, for unintelligent resentment and suspicion may be as blinding as unintelligent admiration.

German **desire for military and political hegemony in Europe is not merely a consequence of the Bismarckian blood-and-iron policy;** it springs from the character of the new German Empire itself and from the position of the Hohenzollern dynasty. How matters might have developed had the Emperor Frederick and his enlightened consort lived to guide German destinies is now a question merely academic. The fact with which statesmen have to reckon is that, in the words of a perspicacious Slav observer, "the Emperor William, though a legitimate sovereign in Prussia and in the Empire, is compelled by the exigencies of his real or fancied mission constantly to act as a usurper."

He must be always in the forefront of public attention; must always appear the indispensable leader of his people. Many of his sensational words and deeds are intended less for the foreign than for the German public. **Constitutionally, he is "German Emperor"**—that is to say, hereditary President of the United States of Germany. **Practically, he acts and strives increasingly to be regarded as "Emperor of Germany"**—emperor, that is, in the same sense that Francis Joseph is Emperor of Austria and the Tsar Emperor of Russia. He must seem to be not only the constitutional chief of a federation of sovereign states, but the director of imperial affairs, the sole judge of imperial policy; a war-lord and peace-lord, whose right divine shines with a brilliance incomparably more refulgent than surrounds the head of any other federal sovereign, present or past, be he Wittelsbach of Bavaria, Wettin of Saxony, King of Wurtemburg, Grand Duke of Baden, or even Habsburg of Austria. Could the Emperor William choose a new motto, it might be a Hohenzollern adaptation of the "Oranje Boven" of the House of Orange!

If the acts of the German Emperor are viewed as **attempts never to allow the Federal Sovereigns and peoples to cease to regard him as their divinely appointed lord and leader** to whose hands the very existence of the Empire and its new prosperity and power are confided, many an incomprehensible word and gesture will appear in its true light, and much of the uneasiness inspired by his incalculable vagaries will disappear—much, but not all.

Despite the present crisis the people of the German Empire are in many points too closely at one with their Emperor for him in his militant moods not to be a true interpreter of their wishes, especially in regard to the Fleet. The Navy has become popular in Germany, and the Emperor, as its creator, shares that popularity. To his subjects the Navy represents a protection for the young sea-borne commerce of the Empire, and, if need be, a reminder to all whom it may concern that that commerce cannot be touched with impunity. Maritime trade appears now to the German an indispensable outlet for the work of the hands

and brains of 60,000,000 Germans, who are determined that their flag shall fly on every sea, and that their place in the world shall be not inferior to the place of any people on earth.

How far does this legitimate ambition threaten the position acquired through centuries of struggle and effort by Great Britain? How far are German and British aims incompatible, and with what degree of truth may an Anglo-German struggle for mastery be described as inevitable? Though these are questions which no sane man will answer off-hand, they have for years engaged the attention and oppressed the minds of European statesmen. Germany, to her credit be it said, has spared no effort to ensure success should the conflict come. England cannot truthfully make a similar claim. Her Navy is doubtless ready, but her Army, which in the day of peril might turn the issue of the struggle, is miserably insufficient and unprepared for the great task it may have to perform.

Not at Trafalgar, brilliant naval victory though it was, but at Waterloo, a comparatively insignificant land-battle, was the power of Napoleon broken! Yet the struggles which all foretell rarely occur in the manner predicted. Issues arise at other points to deflect the attention of nations, and to confront them with new problems. Such issues may arise during the crisis pending in the Near East.

The Turkish revolution may prove to have been the starting point of a revolution in the situation of Europe. Russia, driven by hard experience to turn her eyes once more westwards and southwards, has begun to display new interest in Balkan affairs. The Russian Constitution and the Russian understanding with England have again drawn towards Russia the sympathies of the Slav world. "Neo-Slavism," ostensibly non-political, has replaced the old aggressive Pan-Slavism that preceded the fatal policy of Far Eastern adventure. "Neo-Slavism" has one weak point—the relationship between Russia and the Poles. **The 17,000,000 Poles living in Russia, Austria and Prussia are a force which no statesmen can afford to ignore.** Polish tenacity, thrift and industrial potentiality are such that **the dream of Polish reunion seems to-day far less chimerical than it seemed a generation since.** But the Polish question involves for Russia issues even more important than those of her relations to Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Better educated and more active than the Russians, **the Poles, with equality of opportunity, might secure practical control of the Russian state just as they have obtained predominant influence in many Siberian centres,** and have come to exercise in Austria an influence greater than that exercised by any people of equal number. This is a contingency for which Russia is not yet prepared; but it indicates that, far from being dead, the Polish question still lives to trouble European governments; and, though **the manner of its final solution may depend upon the solution of another and still obscurer Slav problem, that of the future of the 30,000,000 Little Russians, or Ruthenes, in South-Western Russia** and Galicia, it cannot fail to be an important factor in the great struggle between Teuton and Slav which many far-sighted students of international politics descry upon the horizon.

The attitude of Russia towards Servia and towards the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina by Austria-Hungary is a proof that Russia does not intend to abandon her spiritual protectorate over the Southern Slavs; and a sign that, in future, questions of racial solidarity may acquire even greater prominence than those of dynastic interest or commercial rivalry.

The forces engaged in ethnic struggles are too complex to be directed by any one mind. Even if the Emperor William be the figure-head of the Teutonic world, he is no more its leader than the Tsar is leader of the Slavs. True, a statesman may arise who, concentrating in his hand the threads of a racial policy, may direct or exploit an ethnic movement much as Bismarck in the sixties directed and exploited the great Liberal movement of the Germans towards national unity. But no such statesman is yet in sight. Europe gropes in the dark to find a path of safety, and often discovers at the eleventh hour that she is on the brink of a chasm.

Constellations of states are formed rather by that agglomeration of "atoms

in fortuitous concourse" to which the Stoics attributed the genesis of worlds than in obedience to the designs of a clear political intelligence at the service of a powerful will. Statesmen are flies upon the wheel of time, not the motive, nor even always the directing, force.

Who, for instance, controls the policy of Russia? The Tsar? Recent Russian history furnishes denials at every turn. **M. Isvolsky,** a cultivated and gifted diplomatist who has concluded, it is true, the understanding with England, but who has been worsted hitherto in his duel with his crafty Austro-Hungarian colleague, **Baron von Aehrenthal,** and is now fain to give diplomatic expression to the impulses of Russian people? In France it may more truly be said that **M. Clemenceau**—that energetic and magnetic arch-Radical turned dictator—incorporates the articulate will of the nation, but it is a negative will, the will to avoid war.

Even the German Emperor cannot count unrestrictedly upon his armed millions. They would obey him reluctantly and fight half-heartedly in any quarrel that did not clearly affect their vital interests.

Who directs the renascent energies of Italy? Not the King, conscientious worker and enlightened spirit though h be. Not **Giolitti,** whose talents are rather those of an American electoral "boss" than of a statesman, and whose lon tenure of office has been one continual effort to corrupt the public conscience and to administer soporifics to the political intelligence of the nation. Not **Tittoni,** whose methods savour rather of the sacristy than of the senate and whose foreign policy has been conducted less with the object of strengthenin Italy's friendships and alliances abroad than with that of preparing a subterranean alliance between Italy and the Vatican in order to secure for himself the support of the clericals at home.

The Catholic Church, and, in the Church, the Society of Jesus, **plays indeed a large part in the politics of Europe,** not, for the moment, a clearly-defined, unmistakabl part, but a part made up of sedulou intrigue and propaganda designed to obtain for Rome the sympathies of the reactionary elements in all the countries of Europe—propaganda carried on positively by means of the clergy and the clerical Press, negatively by the exercise of personal influences upon the great organs of public opinion and by pushing clerical adepts to positions of confidence in the neighbourhood of ministers, editors and thrones.

International clericalism sedulously sapping the foundations of popular liberties and enlightenment is one of the few political and social forces in Europe that are consciously working towards a predetermined end. Though it is working in almost every European State, including England, it is most powerful in Austria-Hungary, where it has found in the Foreign Minister an instrument admirably suited for the part assigned to him—a man gifted with the talent of his Jewish ancestors, carefully trained in a school of clerical bureaucracy and **fired with the ambition to become a post-Bismarckian Metternich.** He serves two masters—the one venerable, honourable, beloved; the other young, energetic, unknown except in so far as he has hitherto exhibited strong clerical sympathies.

Austria-Hungary on a basis of universal suffrage is marching towards reaction; and her large population of Jews who, in the past, formed the ablest and most liberal element of her body-politic, are now blind to all interests save those of time-serving and money-making.

The influence of the Jews in Europe might be an immense progressive force. It is an immense force in the region of international finance, where the highest ideal is a profitable investment. Time was when the Freemasons and the Jews in the name of liberty successfully counteracted the power of the Jesuits; but to-day the Jews, imbued with the spirit of German Realpolitik, would finance a Jesuit campaign for the destruction of liberty if only they were sure of a sufficiently high rate of interest!

Europe appears to be on the eve of a crisis that may search the hearts and test the sinews of her peoples.

For England there is but one line of safety—to be strong and ready on sea and land to defend her ideals, traditions and interests; and, while avoiding sentimental hysteria, to be determined to support no cause that is not a cause of progress and justice.

THE AWAKENING OF THE EAST.

THE DEMAND FOR REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT IN CHINA, INDIA, EGYPT, PERSIA, TURKEY.

By ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN.

The most striking feature in contemporary history is the demand now being made by many of the Oriental peoples for a representative form of government.

Such a form is not only an untried novelty among Eastern races on the continent of Asia, but is directly opposed to deeply rooted social and religious prejudices. Nevertheless, the demand is there; in some cases the experiment is being tried, and in others the attempt to secure it is assuming what has the appearance of a national attitude.

There is no space, within the limits assigned to me, for an analysis of **the psychology of this movement,** but it must be borne in mind that, whereas discontent with their own condition has been simmering for ages in many Oriental countries among the educated classes, yet there is in none of them anything approaching "public opinion," as we know it. The movements we see are chiefly confined to a small class in each country. **Yet there is a perceptible change in the attitude of the masses.**

The "mute acquiescence of the governed," which Lord Curzon once found the dominant note in Asia, has been perceptibly disturbed. This change is largely attributable to the victories of Japan over Russia, events which have been apprehended by peoples who hardly know the name of either country, but have seized **the idea suggested of Asia's triumph over Europe.**

Therefore, in my brief resumé we shall find that the year 1905 was a turning point in the political evolution of many Oriental countries.

Reform movements had existed and national aspirations had been voiced long before, but an enormous impetus was then given, and the ears of the masses, long deaf, seem to have opened wide to the propaganda of the pseudo-educated classes. As for the latter, they argued thus. "What has made Japan successful?" Answer: "Her political revolution and adoption of a Western form of government." (Many European writers and teachers have inculcated this doctrine into their Oriental students.) "Therefore, if we can accomplish our political regeneration, we, too, shall be successful." The "blessed word Mesopotamia" has been changed to "constitution," and **all over the Eastern world we hear echoed the shibboleths of our own political life.**

The awakening of China differs in many respects from that of other countries. The example and precept of Japan have had to contend with the age-long contempt of the Chinese for the Japanese. China, moreover, is already a democratic government, and her people are not nearly so conscious of political disabilities as some of their foreign friends would have them to be. It has always been a barrier to reform in China that the bulk of the vast population was contented with its form of government. **The quickening impulse has come through the sense of grievance against foreigners** who have been exploiting China and securing privileges within her and from the military lesson of the Russo-Japanese War.

The spread of the Press and of education has taught the people to appreciate their own position better, has shaken their invincible conceit and belief in themselves, and has opened their eyes to the humiliating terms of their intercourse

with the Occidental world. Hence the old. ignorant, anti-foreign superstition, fed by government for its own purposes, has been replaced by a more reasonable but equally intense feeling, and the cry of "China for the Chinese" has had the effect of creating for the first time within the empire a genuine feeling of nationhood.

At the same time the Government, convinced by Japanese success that Europe can be held at bay by force better than by craft, has embarked on **a reform programme** which necessarily includes the education of the people in the arts of efficiency. Anti-foreign feeling is officially discountenanced, as inimical to this educational process; and China is willing, as was Japan, to utilise European instructors. At the same time, Peking has to contend with a growing revolt against her one-time policy of hypothecating national assets to foreigners, and, under the pressure of popular opinion a serious attempt is being made to regain possession of some of these—for instance, railways and mines.

There is also **an anti-dynastic party** (largely recruited from half-educated Chinese students in Tokio), composed of the extreme wing of reformers, and corresponding to our more advanced Socialists; and these people, frequently fugitives in French Indo-China, have succeeded in unsettling the Chinese population there, and give the French a great deal of trouble. This revolutionary party has now to contend with a moderate national reform party which has secured the support of the Peking government.

The most surprising change in China is the attitude towards the army, directly attributable to Japanese influence. The Government perceived the necessity for, and Yuan shih-kai devised the means to create, an army on modern principles, disciplined and paid. The social position of the soldier was formerly the lowest in the empire, the military mandarin being despised. An entire revolution in this system has been accomplished, and the result is that **a wave of militarism is just gathering to roll over China,** a country which contains, perhaps, the finest military material in the world.

The effect in stimulating national patriotism cannot be over-estimated, and if the Peking Government can keep in touch with this martial and patriotic movement, there will be no political revolution in China. **A constitution has been promised,** but more as a concession to the **Zeitgeist** of Europe than because it is clamoured for by the people. What they need most is administrative reform; what they are pressing for is education; and in this one finds exemplified the practical good sense of the Chinese.

A very different stage has been reached in **the political awakening of India.** Here we find a natural and inevitable process of growth suddenly warped and forced by outside influence. It was inevitable when we gave peace and education to the Indian peoples that they should ask for more. There is no doubt that we made mistakes in our system of education, but the **demand of India for a greater share in administration was inevitable,** even without this contributory cause.

We have now a body of men with a specialised literary training, and we cannot provide outlets for their energies. For a considerable number of years they have formed a discontented nucleus, and although our policy has been to progressively increase the administrative openings for Indians, yet we could not keep pace with the growth of office-seekers. As a matter of fact, the great mass of civil servants are natives—there are only some 1,200 English in the civil government of 240 millions and the control of over 60 millions—but the reservation of the highest posts certainly places a limit to native ambitions, and there are other handicaps. A favourite and dangerous demand is one which would **throw all the courts into native hands and rob the district officer of judicial functions.**

In the year 1905 a fresh element came into the situation. Up to that time the political aspirations of the Indians had been confined to demands which many Englishmen considered quite legitimate. During the Boer War (1899–1902) the loyalty of India to Great Britain was perfect—on the surface. With the defeat of Russia by Japan, however, sedition raised its head openly in India, and henceforward may be traced a very different movement, one having for its end and aim nothing less than **absolute**

independence of British control. Small at first, the party of sedition has spread itself over Bengal, the Punjab, and the Deccan. Some observers believe that it originated among the Mahratta Brahmins of Poona, who have joined hands with the discontented Bengali lawyers and office seekers, whereby a formidable combination has resulted.

The organisation of sedition proceeded apace. Emissaries were despatched to undermine the simple villagers and corrupt the schools, and daring schemes for seducing the Indian troops were initiated. It was only the discovery of the last which moved the Government to adequate repressive measures, for our policy has been conducted on the "safety-valve" principle, disregarding the fact that Orientals do not hold our own extreme views on liberty of speech and look on our indulgence as fear or ignorance.

At the present moment the application of the law is sufficient to prohibit open sedition either in the Press or in public gatherings, while private meetings of more than twenty persons are liable to prohibition or supervision. But the difficulty is to check the underground propaganda, so long unhampered.

The so-called **National Congress,** consisting of delegates from various provinces (instituted in 1887 as a sort of debating and advisory council on Indian affairs), has now an openly seditious party, and even its moderate section makes no pretence of aiming at anything less than the gradual supersession of British authority up to the point of Home Rule within the empire. **The extremists—the Nationalists as they call themselves—ask for immediate separation, withdrawal of British troops, and "absolute freedom from British control."** It must be borne in mind that the National Congress is not an elected body, and has no claim to consider itself representative of "the people of India"—there is not, and never was, an Indian "nation," or "people of India"—but it does voice the aims and ideas of a section of educated native opinion.

The movement known as "Swadeshi" (literally "our country") originated in Bengal, ostensibly as an encouragement to national industries which were to be promoted by boycotting English goods. Without a constructive programme of industrial development such a boycott was bound to fail, and it degenerated into an incentive to riot. A section of Indian reformers are now initiating industrial works with Indian capital, under the direct encouragement of the Government, and if the hoarded wealth of India (estimated at £300,000,000) could be partially released, and circulated in productive enterprises, many of the pressing problems of Indian life would be solved.

The tactics adopted by the party of sedition need only a brief reference here. From riot and murder they have followed an ascending scale to the appalling crimes of dynamiting and bomb-throwing. Anarchism has been introduced into India and a fresh and terrible complication added to our problem of government. For the anarchist is the irreconcilable. The extreme section in India, it must be noted, is fed from Europe, and even our universities are now hotbeds for the manufacture of sedition.

Students meet together on May 10th to celebrate the anniversary of the Meerut mutiny, and to recall the "sacred memory" of Nana Sahib and other "martyrs." In the literature disseminated by the party of sedition one finds the half digested ideas of some of our political economists, crudely set forward as panaceas for all India's grievances—including plague and famine—and it is the fashion in certain of our own political circles to encourage this propaganda. The legislation of Lord Curzon's later viceroyalty, especially the partition of Bengal and reform of the universities, gave opportunities for focussing discontent, for such legislation must necessarily impose hardships on some sections of the people, though the general result may amply justify it.

We are concerned now with the attitute of the Indian peoples as a whole towards the political propaganda. For the most part the "mute acquiescence" has not been more than stirred, but movement is visible. The idea presented is that of Asia coming to her own again. By what agency this is to be accomplished is not clear. There is discontent of various kinds natural to a people under alien rule, however just; there is the

natural general tendency to blame the government for what is wrong, and to give no thanks when all goes well. **But is there any real awakening of a political sense, any real demand for a different form of government?**

To this question one must reply that **India, with its fifty languages and over 600 "native states," has no national voice.** The Mohammedans protest vigorously against the "national" Congress, and have formed an All India Moslem League, whose dominant note is that of loyalty to the British raj. The native princes and a large proportion of the landowning class are equally desirous of retaining British control. Finally, it is the firm conviction of British and Indian statesmen alike that British control is essential for the protection of the agriculturists, the 80 per cent. who form the silent masses of the Indian peoples. It is recognised that more must be done to meet the legitimate aspirations of Indians to take a more important share in their own government. Concessions have been made (such as the appointment of two native members to the India Council), others are projected, and more must follow; but, so far, the principle of British control is reserved, and any scheme for granting representative government to India must be regarded as outside the sphere of practical politics.

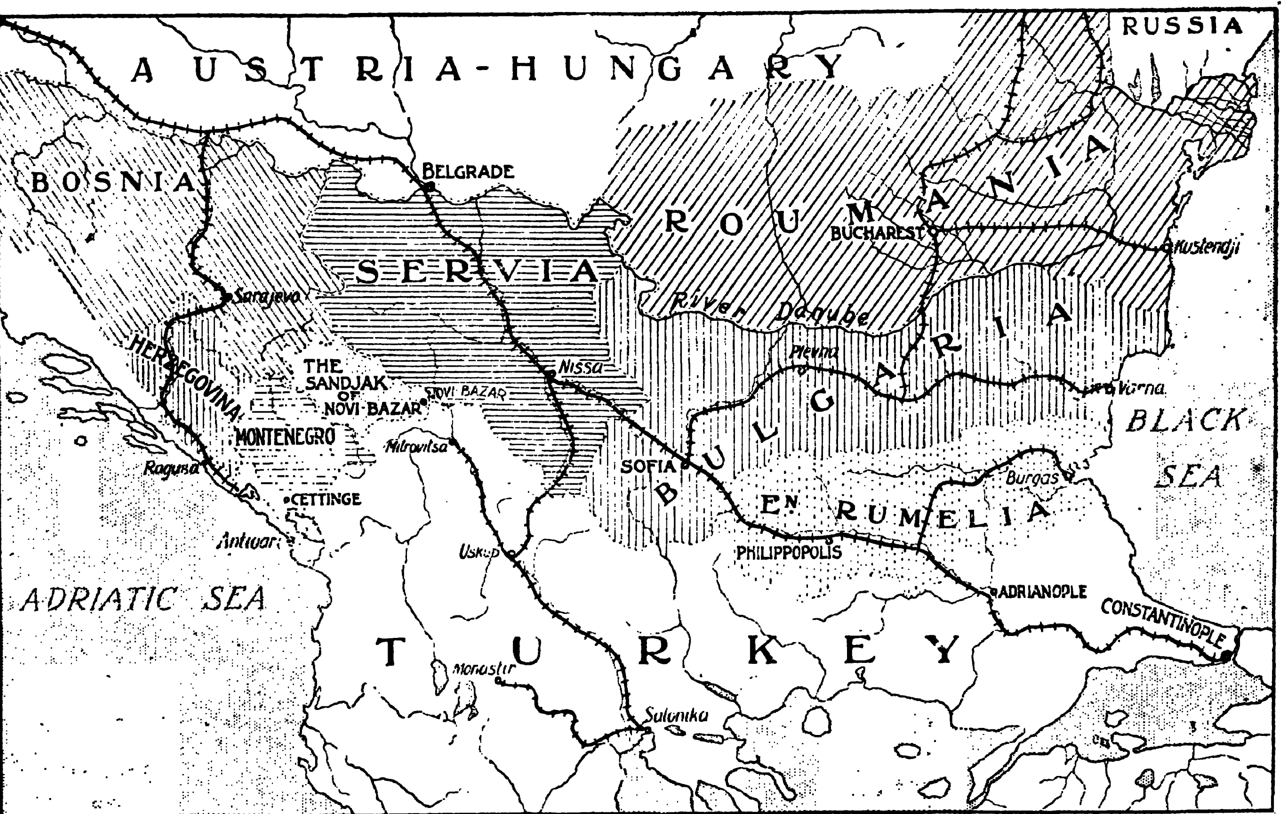
There is a resemblance and a contrast between the so-called Nationalist platforms of India and Egypt. In both there is a class which arrogates the right to speak for "the people"; in both there is a division of the party into extremists and moderates, the latter desiring gradual evolution and the former complete and instantaneous independence of Great Britain. As to **the Egyptian Nationalists** it may be said that, since the death of Kamel Pasha, they have receded from their original position and are willing to accept the presence of the army of occupation—for a time at all events—if the British agent will "induce" the Khedive **to grant measures of representative government to certain municipalities**—the thin end of the wedge.

As in India, there is an agitation for a **much fuller employment of natives in the Government service,** though, as a matter of fact (1906) only 1,252 are Europeans out of a total of 13,279, and in both countries the immediate appointment of natives in the higher posts would, to say the least, seriously impair the efficiency of the machine, while it could by no means dispose of all the office seekers.

"Native" in Egypt, be it noted, means Moslem, and might possibly be strained to include Copts, but the "dwellers in Egypt," as Lord Cromer called them, include half a dozen other races and religions. In Egypt, as in Turkey, Moslem supremacy has always been a cardinal point, nor does there exist any guarantee for the protection of the minority. This, crudely put, is the *raison d'être* for the continued presence of Britain in Egypt. It is not denied that we have freed the native Egyptian from official oppression, and have given security to the other races, while immensely improving the economic condition of the country. As a natural result of their improved condition, the Egyptians ask for more. They feel so much better and stronger that they want to stand on their own legs.

Now, **here we have the contrast with India.** Out of the welter of Egyptian politics **a National party has emerged with an anti-British propaganda,** and that party is Moslem, whereas in India the Moslems are pro-British and anti-"National." Egypt has this advantage over India in creating a genuine nationalism that she has a vernacular (Arabic) and is a country—not a continent. But she has by no means fused her constituents into anything approaching a coherent body politic. The government of Egypt is nominally in native hands—those of the Khedive and his ministers—and there is a legislative council and a general assembly, both partially elected, but neither of these bodies has real power except that the assembly must consent to any new taxation.

The Khedive and his ministers are "advised" by the British agent, and the administration is carried on by a personnel which, as already said, includes 1,252 Europeans occupying the superior posts, many of these in technical positions. It is apparent that this system is elastic, and can be modified to meet the views of Egyptians with aspirations for self-government up to a certain point. Unfortunately, the extremist party, with a



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Press at its command, demand political changes of a far more radical kind and know how to make their programme attractive. Sir Eldon Gorst has recently met this demand by declaring that **the conditions for Parliamentary government do not exist, but that measures will shortly be taken to give the people a greater share in local affairs.**

Persia is a striking illustration of the futility of adopting the letter, without the spirit, of popular government. Oppression and the example of the Russian Duma incited the Persians to revolt, and with the aid of the priesthood they wrung a constitution from the late Shah just before his death.

A popular elected assembly, the Mejliss, met at Teheran, and a struggle began with the present Shah, who by no means desired to accept his predecessor's legacy. In this struggle the **Mejliss** showed itself as corrupt as it was incapable, and the Shah, after repeatedly promising to abide by the constitution, is obviously determined not to do so. He has now undertaken, under pressure from Great Britain and Russia, to call another "popular" assembly, but it is evident he means it to be well under his own control. Meanwhile, a great part of Persia is in a state of revolt, public business is at a standstill, and the country is given up to political agitation fomented by the associations (*anjumans*), whose ideas and methods are those of the extremists in India.

The so-far bloodless revolution accomplished in Turkey is a great contrast to the anarchy in Persia, but something must be allowed for the astuteness of Abdul Hamid and his position in the Moslem world. To accept him and bolster up his authority was the master-stroke of the young Turks. He had already granted one constitution (1876-7), and abolished it next year, and since that date had built up a tyranny of corruption and espionage. But the tap-root of that tyranny has been cut, and the Sultan, with all his faults, is a statesman.

The Turks had long been engaged on schemes of reform; their conduct in their first brief Parliament was excellent. Driven into exile the reformers became stronger dispersed over the provinces than they could have been in one place. In Europe they formed centres and laid plans. Japan's example gave them new heart, and soon after 1905 they began **an organisation at Salonika.**

Spreading slowly and cautiously at first, they found their propaganda received with open arms. Tyranny can only be upheld by military force, and the Sultan had alienated the army. The final coup was sudden, but well arranged. The religious authorities lent their aid, the Sultan yielded, and his Syrian camarilla was dispersed. For a week the Committee of Union and Progress was the only authority in Turkey, and peace and order were maintained.

The constitution to which Abdul Hamid swore on the Koran, containing the fullest provisions for the rights of the people, and identical with that granted in 1876, admits Turkish subjects of all races to equal privileges, and extraordinary scenes of fraternal rejoicing occurred among Turks, Jews, Kurds, Armenians, Greeks, Albanians, Serbs, and the many other peoples of the empire. Many pitfalls lie in the way, particularly in the relations of the committee and the army, but if the young Turks can steer through them the country will settle down, and under reformed administration will evolve the necessary conditions to make representative government a reality.

Whatever happens, the Turks have revealed political possibilities of a high order, the country has been shaken out of apathy and gloom, and the first step, which proverbially costs most, has been successfully taken.

Space allows only a word by way of conclusion. **England has been the pioneer of political evolution, and her writers are the inspiration of Oriental reformers today. But it cannot be too strongly insisted on that our political evolution was as slow as it was sure, and that we are even now questioning the truth of some of our own dicta. Our sympathy must go to the reformer, but not to the revolutionary or the anarchist.**

Finally, to those who would emulate the military successes of Japan, I recommend a study of the past and present conditions of that country and the national sacrifices involved, to which—and not to any outward change in her political system—her present position is due.

ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN.

SECTION 1.
QUESTIONS OF THE DAY.

THE PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM, AND SUGGESTED REMEDIES.

By J. RAMSAY MACDONALD, M.P.

The curve of unemployment has been going up steadily since April, 1907, when it stood at a little over 3 per cent., until, at the time of writing, it has reached 9·4 per cent. (October, 1908).

What that means in absolute numbers is a little difficult to say. Mr. Chiozza Money, M.P., in an article in the "International Review" for February, 1908, makes the following calculation of males unemployed from lack of work for at least four weeks each in a year between 1887 and 1906, exclusive of agricultural labourers, fishermen and sailors, and miners:

Industries Occupying	Average Unemployment per cent.	Average No. Unemployed
1,438,000	4	57,520
5,185,000	15	777,750
1,158,000	33	386,000
7,781,000		1,221,270

These figures may well be taken as a statistical basis. During periods of special distress, the total average number must be increased by at least 5 per cent., and this figure multiplied by three will probably be not far from the total of the population directly affected by the prevailing slackness. **This gives 4,884,000 persons as being sufferers at present.**

Causes.—The causes of unemployment are manifold. One, however, relating to social structure, is the most constant and certain in its operation. **The productive capacity of the people is greater than their consuming capacity, and periodically the phenomenon of over-production or under-consumption is presented.** This is intensified by financial crises, such as that which occurred in New York last year, by seasonal changes, by alterations in fashions, and by the introduction of new machinery displacing labour, as has happened within comparatively recent times in the boot and shoe industry.

Personal habits have also something to do with these crises, for if men spend carelessly in good times, they cannot keep up their consumption in slack times, and thus the market becomes restricted more rapidly than would otherwise happen. But, on the whole, **the chief influence of personal habit is selective.** The drunkard may be discharged first, the weakly may remain longest unemployed; but were there no drunkards at all, discharges would nevertheless take place; and were everyone strong, there would be labour for which, periodically, there would be no demand.

The registrations conducted by Distress Committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act show a curious result. **Nearly 80 per cent. of the applicants were between the ages of 20 and 50,** and 53·3 per cent. of the whole were of the general or casual labouring class. These figures show that casual labour bears heavy burdens of distress in slack periods, and that an exceedingly large number of youths are passed into the world without industrial training. These circumstances have an important bearing on this problem.

The Conservative Party has recently begun to claim that **free imports is one of the causes of unemployment.** Mr. Balfour has repeatedly stated that he does not believe that Tariff Reform will cure unemployment, but he thinks it will steady trade. **The experience of America and Germany**—in neither of which countries, however, are there accurate statistics of unemployment—throw great doubt upon the fulfilment of that hope, and it is not held by any section of the organised working-classes nor by a single labour leader of national repute.

Treatment.—Hitherto remedies for unemployment have been proposed on the spur of the moment, during a crisis, and have consisted mostly of relief works provided either by the rates or by

voluntary funds. The Lancashire cotton famine works are a case in point. Pretty steadily since 1892, when the Mansion House conference on unemployment in the East End of London was held and started the Abbey Mills experiment, these works have been in hand in some parts of the country; but they have been left to local initiative, and have been, on the whole, voluntary in management.

In 1905, however, the Conservative Government introduced the **Unemployed Workmen Bill,** which for the first time under modern conditions recognised the responsibility of the public to find employment for deserving men. The Act was experimental, and its duration was limited to three years, though it was extended for another year by the Liberal Government waiting the report of the Poor Law Commission. Most of the work provided under this Act was not much better than relief work, and consisted of making roads, levelling parks, digging sewers; but connected with it—though not originated under it—was the Hollesley Bay Farm Colony experiment.

Hollesley Bay Farm, originally an agricultural training college, was acquired by Mr. Joseph Fels in 1905, and was handed over to the Central Committee of the London Unemployed Fund for working. It was then transferred to the Central Unemployed Body for London on its formation under the Unemployed Act in December, 1905, and it was purchased by the Body in January, 1907.

The **original intention** of the experiment was: (1) The provision of special work for periods of special distress; (2) the provision of more continuous work for men who are not only in exceptional need of work, but who either have already lived on the land, or show a marked aptitude for country life; (3) the establishment of suitable men and families in agricultural or other rural industry.

But the Local Government Board decided that the Body had no power to promote small holdings, and the colony became relief works, and its value was lost.

The treatment of the unemployed mechanic has offered the most difficult problem. He is often in a trade union, and is a severe charge upon its funds. The following figures, showing for two well-known unions the amounts paid for out-of-work benefit for a series of years, indicates how well a system of insurance protects this class of worker:

Year.	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.	London Society of Compositors.
	£	£
1900	30,	15,868
1901	41,	15,791
1902	46,863	15,485
1903	52,077	15,806
1904	90,218	16,126
1905	92,	19,569
1906	77,	18,212
1907	71,	17,063

It has been proposed, and the Trade Union Congress meeting at Nottingham in 1908 approved the proposal, **that trade unions making such payments should be subsidised from State funds;** and the Labour Party, going a step further, has suggested that, under proper safeguards, these men for a limited period might have a form of out-door relief without the taint or consequences of pauperism.

But the best that can be done for the mechanic is for public authorities to prepare schemes of work, make preparations for their execution, and put them in hand when the outside labour market begins to show signs of depression. **An expenditure of from £12,000,000 to £20,000,000 held in reserve for such an emergency would have a very considerable steadying effect.** The subsidising of trade unions by the State would be bound to result in considerable interference with trade union financial liberty, and I do not think that the proposal can be defended. **A system of compulsory insurance, with State contributions, might, however, be devised as a basis upon which to build the proposal of maintenance made in the Labour Party's Right to Work Bill.**

Constructive Reform.—Chief amongst the more permanent defences that can be devised to protect the country against unemployment are:

1. **The organisation of casual labour** so that all such labour may be engaged through bureaux, and thus, whilst a man may be employed by several employers during a week, he will, nevertheless, be steadily in work. This, however, will increase the army of the permanently unemployed.

2. Afforestation is a proposal to use vast areas of waste land, like mountains and moors, for the planting of trees. Some doubt is entertained as to the amount of labour which this will entail, but Professor Schlich estimates that 2,500,000 people can be employed. There are about 17,000,000 acres available for planting purposes in the United Kingdom. A report on the subject will be published at the beginning of 1909 by a Royal Commission which has been inquiring into it.

One of the chief values of afforestation is that it makes its greatest demands upon labour during the winter, and is therefore suitable as an adjunct to village and agricultural settlements.

3. Small holdings are proposed, with afforestation, as a means of keeping the population upon the land. The effect of this will be to steady trade, and to supply many opportunities which do not now exist for odd jobs to men unemployed in towns. It will also greatly increase the consumptive capacity of the people.

4. Farm colonies, graded from semi-penal settlements for those who will not work, to colleges for those who are being trained for work upon small holdings or on farms, are necessary as bridges connecting town and country. They would be particularly useful for passing those who have become permanently unemployed in the towns and under factory conditions, back upon the land, where for some time longer they could earn an independent living.

For some considerable time, this process of filling up the country, if properly organised, will enable governments to relieve the pressure of the unemployed. But when the work has been accomplished and the English village has grown again and the English field is tilled and bears fruit, **the economic law of depression will bring periodically its slack seasons.** These proposals do not solve the unemployed problem.

The Right to Work Bill.—The Labour party, recognising that palliatives only stave off the evil for a time, and seeing that insurance is impossible for very large numbers of workpeople, impose upon the State the responsibility of providing work for the unemployed, and their Right to Work Bill has figured largely in recent controversy. The Bill has been much misrepresented. **It does not recognise the right of a man to select what work suits him.** It assumes a difficulty in providing work, and creates the best possible machinery—local distress committees, an advisory body of experts at Whitehall, commissioners—for devising schemes which can be either national or local, or both. The genuinely unemployed man will then register himself and his case will be inquired into. If a form of out-relief is best for him **and is necessary,** he will have it. This would be given in practice, no doubt, on condition that the man submitted to some educational discipline during his unemployed period, so that he would emerge from it better than he entered it. Or the proposal might be made part of an insurance scheme.

No shirking would be tolerated. Shirking is possible only on temporary relief works, which are closed before they are properly organised. **A clause in the Bill also provides that if a man will not work he may be sentenced to a working colony.** The full Bill, with comments on its various provisions, has been published by the Independent Labour Party.

The Right to Work proposal has been for a long time the special proposal of Socialists, but it has now been accepted by the Trade Union Congress, the Labour Party Annual Conference, and every important gathering of organised labour.

Foreign Experience.—The attempts made to grapple with the problem at different times and in different countries have been both varied and numerous. Foremost in this country, outside the Poor Law, are trade unions, with unemployed benefit payments; the rescue work of the Salvation Army and similar institutions; the work of the Congested Districts Boards in Ireland and Scotland. Labour colonies are tried in various European countries, particularly in Germany and Holland; towns like Cologne, Leipsic, Ghent, Strasburg, Berne, have tried, or are still trying, insurance; New Zealand provides government work on roads or on the back blocks where forest-land is being reclaimed for farming at the State's expense.

When the report of the Poor Law Commission appears in 1909 the country will be faced with the problem at close quarters, and some permanent machinery for dealing with it will have to be created.

THE UNEMPLOYED PROBLEM.

WHAT EUROPE IS DOING TO SOLVE IT.

"**Neither in the United States nor in Great Britain has there been any real success in working out the problem of the unemployed,**" writes Mr. D. P. Bliss, in a very extensive report of the whole subject written for the United States Labour Bureau.

"Even in times of unusual distress," he says, "when there have been spasmodic efforts to provide work, these efforts have been spasmodic and of necessity hasty in operation. For the most part the complacent but often delusive statement has been accepted that there was no real lack of employment; that if any man was without work in ordinary times, all he had to do was to quit drinking and 'set out and hustle for a job.'"

Mr. Bliss then goes on to say:

"In studying what has been done and is now being done for the unemployed in foreign countries, three general classes are here considered: The employable, the unemployable, and the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious. The employable are divided into two groups—those who are out of work and have no prospect of returning to their former employment, and those who are out of work but whose regular employment is only temporarily interrupted.

"**The most important agencies for providing work for the unemployed who are employable, but have no prospect of returning to their former positions, are the public employment bureaus.** These are largely developed in a number of European countries, but especially **in Germany,** where they have grown rapidly in the last twenty years, both in numbers and in efficiency. Private employment bureaus of various kinds are also found in most of the countries studied. Apart from employment bureaus, other efforts made by European governments to find new positions for the unemployed of this class consist in attempts either to colonise them across the seas in their own colonial possessions or dependencies, or in some way to get them in the home country 'back to the land.'

"**In connection with the temporarily out of work, consideration is given to trade union out-of-work benefits;** under this are included the attempts, mainly in Switzerland, at **insurance against unemployment and the 'Ghent' system,** now largely developed throughout Belgium, and spreading into other countries, notably France, whereby the municipal or communal, or, in some cases, the provincial or general, government may supplement the trade union out-of-work benefit by adding to it an equal sum.

"**'Home shelters' for the workmen travelling in search of work are considered,** mainly for Germany and Switzerland, where they have been most developed, as apart from ordinary charitable shelters and lodging-houses for the poorer artisan class at large. In Germany, Switzerland, and German Austria, the so-called 'Herbergen' or 'Herbergen zur Heimat' (home shelters), are organised into a general system of homes or hotels for working men, and especially for those who are travelling in search of work, in all the larger cities and towns. Here, under helpful influences, workmen can find lodging for a night or two either by paying a small sum or, if unable to pay, by doing a little work in the morning. They are in all cases private institutions, maintained in many cases by the trade unions, or, not infrequently, by religious societies.

"Connected with these home shelters there has been developed, particularly in southern Germany and a few other portions of the German Empire, **a system of smaller relief stations (Verpflegungsstationen) under government administration or support.** These relief stations are already organised in many portions of the Empire in such numbers as to be within walking distance of each other, and all are connected by telephone. A workman travelling in search of work can go from shelter to shelter, and at every point learn in which direction he can look for work with the most hope of success. The man who patronises these stations is compelled to have and show at every shelter at which he applies a little book showing his occupation, last place of employment, reason for discharge, etc. His being at each place of shelter is carefully noted, and it is indicated to which shelter he will next apply. All is under complete governmental or police control; and if the worker, securing work, departs from his appointed route or has recourse to begging, or in any way violates the rules governing the relief shelters, he can be, and is, arrested. If unable to pay for his shelter, he is required to work in the morning and travel in the afternoon, and the time in which he can stay at any one shelter is strictly limited.

"Legislation has been enacted in Prussia looking to the establishment of this system all over that kingdom. In the cantons of Switzerland, which have accepted the system, and in considerable portions of Germany itself, it is claimed that **tramps or irresponsible vagrants have been almost removed from the community.** Important help is given to this system by the nationalised railroads, which carry at half price or one-third price all those certified by the authorities to be legitimately looking for work.

"**Regarding the unemployable,** the most notable efforts for this important class are the so-called **labour colonies** of Germany, and the less known, but in some ways the more efficient, colonies in Switzerland. The German labour colonies which have grown rapidly, so that there are now thirty in various parts of the Empire, are agricultural colonies, maintained almost wholly by private philanthropy, administered mainly by a religious association, where any workman unable to find work can find shelter so long as he conforms to the rules and regulations of the colony. He is free to go at any time, but while in the colony he must do the work assigned to him and conform to the rules of the colony.

"**Akin to these labour colonies are the penal colonies,** notably of Belgium, Switzerland, and Holland, to which are sent those arrested for begging, persistent idleness, and other minor offences. The colony at Merxplas, Belgium, is the largest penal establishment in the world."

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE UNEMPLOYED.

PLANS FOR INCREASING NECESSARY WORK.

The serious extent of unemployment compelled the Government in October, 1908, to outline some plan of relief.

Mr. Asquith, on behalf of the Government, suggested certain methods for relieving unemployment (October 21st).

"We have to deal with a special emergency," he said. "The situation is a grave one. No one is less disposed than we are who sit on this bench to minimise its dimensions or to dispute its urgency. From causes, some of which are obvious and admitted and others disputable and obscure, there has been brought about, not in this country only, but throughout the allied and interdependent areas of the world's industry, a temporary dislocation of the machinery of production. The result is visible in an increase of unemployment, not indeed beyond precedent, but substantially in excess of anything that we have experienced for some time past. There are faint but welcome signs on the horizon which encourage the belief that the existing distress, though acute and widespread, may be short-lived."

Mr. Asquith then outlined the policy of the **Local Government Board** in expediting sanction for loans to local authorities for works of local utility. Later figures showed between August 1st and October 22nd, 1908, there had been 101 applications for £867,129, an increase of £859,039 over the same period in 1907. For the last four weeks of October, 400 loans were sanctioned, amounting to £1,005,256. In addition, there were loans for other than Poor Law purposes, amounting to £4,601,470, sanctioned between June 1st and October 22nd.

Mr. Asquith pointed out that one of the inducements held out to the local authorities, and for which they in fact stipulated, is that out of the Central Fund voted by Parliament at the end of the financial year, the Local Government Board will contribute in respect of each set of works a sum roughly representing the difference between the value of contract labour and the value of unemployed labour. Only in that way can you offer sufficient inducement in some cases that work for the unemployed shall be undertaken.

Taking a list of twenty-four boroughs, Mr. Asquith showed that the machinery of loans provided nearly ten times as much as would a penny rate. He then pointed out **what the Government Departments are doing to find work for the unemployed.**

The **Post Office** would take 8,000 men for the Christmas season at wages from 20s. to 25s. a week.

With regard to the **War Office**, the replacement of the Militia by the Special Reserve has largely increased the amount of military employment in the winter months. The Special Reservist under the new system has only a fortnight's summer camp, but he does six months' drilling on enlistment, so that if he enlists early in the autumn, as the War Office encourages him to do, he is provided for throughout the winter. The War Office is prepared to take at least 24,000 recruits in the Special Reserve between now and March. They have 5,000 already, and the recruits are coming in faster week by week. They have decided very wisely to widen the choice of the intending recruit by throwing open the Army Service Corps and the Army Medical Corps. If you take the lowest rank, the worst paid of the Army, the emoluments are a shilling a day in cash in addition to rations, &c., and four payments in the way of bounty of £1 each. If the 24,000 are obtained, the Department will spend during the winter of this year something nearly approaching £200,000.

The Admiralty will employ 2,100 men till March 31st, 1909, on work not ordinarily done at this time of the year, at a cost of £73,500. Nine destroyers are to be constructed at a cost of £900,000; five unarmoured cruisers, to cost £1,500,000, are also to be tendered for. To antedate those works will cause the expenditure of £200,000 during the winter.

The Central Grant is used to make grants to localities too poor to borrow and to pay for the employment of labour, and for works other than those for which loans are sanctioned. The Government propose to double the grant, which would give it £300,000.

"The proposals," adds Mr. Asquith, "even for the purpose of dealing with the emergency in front of us, make no pretence to the character of finality. If, and when the necessity should arise, we shall be perfectly prepared to consider in what direction and to what extent they need to be supplemented. But we believe them to be adapted and adequate to the present needs and the foreseeable events. They will not, I am sure, when we are in the presence of a national misfortune, be canvassed in the spirit of party. Like all expedients of the kind, they are little better than anodynes to produce a temporary and superficial relief which do not go down to the root of the malady, and we submit them merely as such, and with the hope, and with the intention, that before this Parliament ends its days, we will be able to strike a really effective blow at the permanent causes of unemployment."

Mr. Keir Hardie moved the following resolution on the unemployed problem, but it was defeated by 236 to 68 votes:

"That, whilst recognising the importance of the promise of the Prime Minister to introduce legislation next Session for dealing with unemployment on a permanent basis, and whilst welcoming the promise to administer with more elasticity the existing Act, and to provide more money to make that possible, this House is of opinion that the proposals made are quite inadequate to meet the pressing needs of the unemployed this winter, and that the responsibility for the absence of proper machinery even for carrying out existing powers and the general unpreparedness of the country to meet the present unemployed crisis is due to the neglect of the Government to make provision for a state of affairs which was clearly foreseen."

THE UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN ACT.

REPORT OF A YEAR'S WORK.

A return, ordered by the House of Commons, **as to the proceedings of distress committees in England and Wales** and of **the Central (Unemployed) Body for London**, under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, during the year ended March 31st, 1908, gives **the following details for London**:

The number of applications received by the 29 distress committees in London was 32,624. Of these, 14,291, representing 42,765 dependents, were entertained. The 69 provincial distress committees received 57,433 applications, and entertained 40,322, representing 108,206 dependents. This makes a total of 90,057 applications received and of 54,613, representing 150,971 dependents, entertained. The total of 90,057 represents 1 in 166 persons, or 6·0 per 1,000 of the aggregate population of the distress committees' districts.

Of the total number of applicants (90,057), 8,032 were women. The census returns show that the aggregate male population (including young persons) engaged in occupations of all kinds in the district of the 98 committees who took action in 1907–8, numbered 4,214,166. Calculated on this basis, and disregarding any increase between 1901 and 1907, the total number of men who applied to distress committees in the year 1907–8 represented 2·1 per cent. of the working male population, as compared with a proportion of 1·9 per cent. in 1906–7, and of 2·4 per cent in 1905–6.

Nearly 80 per cent. of the applicants were between the ages of 20 and 50. The largest number of applicants was of those between 30 and 40 years, these representing a total of 16,249, as compared with 11,029 between 20 and 30 years, and 12,823 between 40 and 50 years. The applicants belonging to the general or casual labour class numbered 29,104, or more than half the total number of applications entertained; to the building trade, 10,569; the engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades, 4,719; and "other" occupations, 5,227. The textile trades provided the smallest number of applicants—192.

Employment, either on relief works or on ordinary work, was offered to 41,459 persons, including 9,167 persons in London. Of these, 5,469 persons refused, or for various reasons did not take up, the work offered; in many cases the applicants had already found work independently. The total number of applicants who took up the work offered, or found for them, during the year (including a certain number who were already at work at the beginning of the year) was 37,092.

The total amount earned in wages by the men and women employed on the various works provided by the Central Body, distress committees, and local authorities was £124,387, of which approximately £15,500 was paid to men and their families engaged on labour colonies. The average amount earned by men on the labour colonies was £6 8s., and by men employed on other works £3 10s. per head. The quality of the work performed was reported fairly generally as satisfactory, regard being had to the fact that the men were in many cases unsuited to the work, and that more supervision was necessary than under ordinary conditions. The exceptional conditions under which the work was carried out are reported in many instances to have rendered it more costly than it would have been under normal conditions.

During the year the Central Exchange and **25 local labour exchanges,** covering almost every part of London, **were maintained. The number of persons registered** on the employment registers of the local exchanges reached **a total of** 116,034, including 20,339 women. **The number of situations filled through the agency of the exchanges** was 22,096, of which 5,340 were for women. The year's cost of the exchanges in London was £8,60[illegible].

The number of persons assisted to emigrate during the year sh[illegible]ws some advance on the figures for the previous year. In all, 6,066 persons were assisted during the year to emigrate by the Central (Unemployed) Body and by 26 provincial distress committees; 1,321 m[illegible]n, with 3,076 dependents, were despatched by the former body from London; and 437 men, with 1,232 dependents, were similarly assisted by committees outside London.

The receipts of the Central (Unemployed) Body and of the distress committees in London and the provinces amounted to £277,458. Of this, £186,350 is in respect of the Central (Unemployed) Body and the London distress committees. The amount raised from rates was £112,581. Of this, £90,[illegible]05 was raised by the Central Body, representing a rate of 0·49d. in the pound. The highest amounts raised outside London were £3,650 in West Ham, £1,750 in Birmingham, £1,501 in Bristol, and £1,448 in Bradford, representing, respectively, rates of 0·7d., 0·2d., 0·2d., and 0·2d. in the pound. The amount of the Parliamentary grant distributed by the Local Government Board up to March 31st, 1908, was £124,195. The expenditure amounted to £225,687, of which £138,098 was in respect of London. Of this sum, the cost of work provided accounts for £135,516, and expenditure in aid of emigration or removal of persons to other areas for £48,931.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

The President of the Board of Trade, being asked (in November, 1908) what, according to the official figures, had been the proportionate increases in unemployment in Germany and the United Kingdom between the corresponding periods of 1906 (when unemployment in both countries was at its lowest point since 1903) and 1908, Mr. Churchill replied:

"Taking **the mean of the percentages of trade union members** reported unemployed during the present year, and comparing it with the mean for the corresponding period of 1906, it would appear that the proportionate increase in the percentage has been in the United Kingdom **115 per cent.**, and in Germany 145 per cent."

He added that the materials do not exist for giving the actual proportions of the unemployed except those in trade unions.

COUNTING THE UNEMPLOYED.

THE DIFFICULTY OF GETTING STATISTICS.

The following statement as to unemployment in the United Kingdom and other countries is based upon British and foreign official materials supplemented by information placed at the disposal of the Tariff Commission.

The net result of the evidence available may be summarised as follows:

(1) **Materials do not at present exist for estimating the number of unemployed in any country.**

(2) There are no absolute or sample figures of a character to enable an exact comparison to be made of the state of employment in any one country with that in any other country.

(3) **The available figures and information can, however, be used partially as indexes to show whether employment is increasing or diminishing in the countries to which they relate,** and whether the employment in any one country is increasing or diminishing at a greater or less rate than in other countries.

(4) **Unemployment in all industrial countries has increased during recent months,** and the evidence shows that the chief cause of this increase is the influence of the United States monetary crisis.

(5) Allowing for exceptional causes at work in Germany and the United States, unemployment in the United Kingdom is more acute than in those countries. This conclusion from the Board of Trade returns of Trade Union unemployment is borne out by the evidence received by the Tariff Commission from manufacturers in almost every trade, where definite instances are given of the loss of certain branches of trade and the restriction of their markets at home and abroad as a direct and indirect consequence of foreign tariff systems.

The Board of Trade "Labour Gazette" is the only **official source of information as to the state of employment in the United Kingdom.** The statistics upon which the monthly unemployment figure is based **relate solely to Trade Unionists**—that is to say, to about 2,000,000 workers out of a total working population computed at more than 10,000,000. In estimating their value as an index of unemployment generally in the United Kingdom it must be remembered (says the Tariff Commission) that—

(1) The monthly figures of Trade Union employment are based upon the returns from **Unions whose total membership is less than one-third of the whole Trade Unionists of the country.**

(2) **The returns of this one-third are not truly representative even of Trade Union unemployment.** Thus, whereas metal, engineering, and shipbuilding Trade Unionists number **about 17 per cent.** of all Trade Unionists, the "Labour Gazette" returns affecting these **trades represent 40 per cent.** of the whole. The consequence is that the building, mining, textile, and other **trades** are inadequately represented.

(3) The Board of Trade unemployment figure does not take into account **non-Unionist workers, who greatly exceed in number the Unionist workers.**

(4) **Also no account is taken of the unskilled workers,** whose number is a very large proportion of the total and whose conditions of employment differ entirely from those of skilled workers. The figures published in the "Labour Gazette" relating to the casual employment of dock and riverside labourers are in such a form that they cannot be included in the unemployment figure.

Taking the Trade Union returns, it is seen that in 1907 the **average amount of unemployment** was 4·2 per cent., as compared with 4·1 per cent. for 1906, and for the ten years ending 1906. In the month of December, 1907, the percentage rose to 6·1; in January, 1908, to 6·2; and in February, 1908, to 6·4.

The November "Labour Gazette" says that "in the 257 trade unions, with a net membership of 591,053, making returns, 56,200 (or 9·5 per cent.) were reported as unemployed at the end of October, 1908, compared with 9·4 per cent. at the end of September, 1908, and 4·7 per cent. at the end of October, 1907."

MR. C. BOOTH'S FIGURES.

Mr. Jesse Argyle, who was associated with the Right Hon. Charles Booth in his great investigation of London poverty, writes to the Press to say that paragraphs, letters, and reports of speeches appear from time to time in the Press attributing to the Right Hon. Charles Booth **the statement that 12 millions of our population are "on the verge of starvation"** In some cases this is varied by ascribing to him the even more sweeping assertion that there are in this country "38 million poor."

"Mr. Booth has never made any such statements. His investigations have been entirely confined to London (London County Council area), and the statistical conclusions are contained in Volume 2 (Poverty Series) of 'Life and Labour in London.' I venture to quote a short description of the classes, with their numbers and percentages, from pp. 20-21 of this volume. More elaborate descriptions are given under the heading of 'Class Relations' in Volume 1, and under 'Standard of Life' in a later volume, to show the degree of want intended to be indicated by the word 'poor.'

"**A. The lower class**—occasional labourers, loafers, and semi-criminals.

"**B. The very poor**—casual labour, hand-to-mouth existence, chronic want.

"**C and D. The poor**—including alike those whose earnings are small, because of irregularity of employment, and those whose work, though regular, is ill-paid.

"**E and F. The regularly employed and fairly paid working class of all grades.**

"**G and H. Lower and upper middle class and all above this level.**

A (lowest)	37,610 or ·9 p.c.		In poverty, 30·7 p.c.
B (very poor)	316,834 or 7·5 p.c.		
C and D (poor)	938,293 or 22·3 p.c.		
E and F (working class, comfortable)	2,166,503 or 51·5 p.c.		In comfort, 69·3 p.c.
G and H (middle class and above)	749,930 or 17·8 p.c.		
	4,209,170	100 p.c.	
Inmates of Institutions.			
	4,309,000		

These figures show 30·7 per cent. **in poverty,** and 69.3 per cent. in comfort.

THE RIGHT TO WORK.

THE "SPECTATOR'S" ARGUMENTS AGAINST IT.

The "Spectator" is strongly against the principle of the **Unemployed Workmen Bill** which was introduced into the House of Commons on March 14th, 1908, but defeated by 149 votes.

A particularly encouraging feature about the debate which preceded the rejection of the Bill (it says) is the fact that by far the best speeches against the measure were made by working men. **Mr. Maddison, the member for Burnley,** in an admirable speech, in which he declared that he was sick of the notion that the Labour Party had the monopoly of sympathy with the unemployed, pointed out that if under the Bill the unemployed were not paid at the Trade Union rate, the Bill would simply have the effect of depressing wages. And what was the work to be? Were they going to set the boilermaker to plough, and weavers, whose hands were as delicate as a woman's, to the hard work of making drains? Of all the fallacies that prevailed in the House—and they were many—the most ridiculous was that the cultivation of the land requires no skill.

"Put the people back on the land!" was now the great cry. He was a compositor, but he would sooner, he declared, go to gaol than go on the land. The "right to work" could not stand alone. If the "right to work" was admitted, it must be followed up by giving the State a control over the lives of the workers to which no self-respecting people would submit.

Mr. Vivian, another working-man, who, through his schemes for co-operative housing has, we do not hesitate to say, conferred enormous benefits upon his fellow working-men and upon the country as a whole, was equally emphatic and equally courageous in his denunciations of the Bill. Mr. Vivian ended his speech by challenging the Labour Party to give a single example, drawn from experience—he cared not how many centuries they went back—where schemes approximating in any degree to this had been a success—nay, which had been anything but melancholy failures. All money spent by Government, national or municipal, must first be collected from the ratepayers or the taxpayers.

To take money from the artisan and hand it over to an incompetent Unemployment Committee to waste in some madcap scheme for which they would not have 2s. 6d. in the pound return would not add one day's work to the demand for labour. "Some of the Labour Party in the House," he went on, "regarded almost as enemies of their propaganda a workman who acquired capital or made provision for a rainy day. By this Bill they were not making work, but they would destroy the character, the self-reliance, and the moral fibre of the men of this country."

These sensible speeches were supplemented by **Mr. Burns,** who was able to speak with the full knowledge of the facts possessed by the President of the Local Government Board. It is not too much to say of his speech that it absolutely blew the Bill "out of the water," and that it will remain an armoury from which the opponents of State Socialism will be able to draw facts and arguments for future use. The timid enemies of Socialism have said that Mr. Burns's speech was too aggressive; but we cannot agree. We believe that he was as wise as he was brave to speak out without fear or favour; and that so far from losing ground with his fellow working-men because of his boldness, he will have fortified himself in their respect and regard.

Englishmen like the man who speaks straight to them, even though at the moment they may answer back and call him hard names. What we specially admire in Mr. Burns's speech is the fact that he clearly keeps always before his eyes the essential difference between a pauper and an independent labourer, and that he realises that pauperisation is the most terrible of social evils, and that whenever you have manufactured a pauper you have ruined a man.

LABOUR COLONIES.

In dealing with the question of labour colony experiments Mr. Burns made out an overwhelming case against the Bill. He took **Hollesley Bay,** which, as he pointed out, is an exact replica of the type of relief-work that would be set up by the Bill. Before that estate became public property a steward with eighteen farm hands was able to make a small profit or incurred a small loss every year. Since it became a State relief-work, with 250 men engaged on it, it has had a net loss of £22,000 a year. The Bill would dot England with such works. At Hollesley Bay the net cost per week per man is from 30s. to 32s., whereas local wages are from 17s. to 18s. a week.

The case of **South Ockenden Colony** is as bad as that of Hollesley Bay. There the cost per week per man is something between 30s. and 32s., or about double the rate of pages paid to the agricultural labourer. At **Laindon** it is the same thing.

A propos of Laindon he told a most striking story—a story worth a wilderness of statistics and abstract theories. He went to Laindon and saw an agricultural labourer between sixty and sixty-five years old digging in a field. This man told him that it took him a fortnight to dig an acre. He went across the road and found able-bodied men engaged on public work, on conditions approximating to the "right-to-work" conditions, and there it took sixty-seven men ten days to dig an acre and a half! "And yet Laindon was a replica of the penal form of labour colonies"—a place where the "work-shy" are supposed to be forced to work! They knew, as practical men, that if once they conceded the principle of this Bill they would have the lanes of our country districts black with men no longer content to receive 15s. or 18s. a week, and coming into our towns and cities where the minimum rate would be 28s. or 30s.

THE RESERVES OF LABOUR.

Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, in the course of his speech declared that all economists and sociological investigators in the country, with Mr. Charles Booth at their head, had laid it down that modern industry demanded a

surplus of labour in order to carry it on. He wanted to supplement that by another doctrine **—that modern industry not only required a steady surplusage of labour, which might become a minimum, but also requires now and again a critical condition of unemployment.**

"It not only required its 2 per cent. always, but its 10 per cent. occasionally. If they agreed with that, there was an inevitable corollary. If we were to have unemployed, not because the men were inferior to the employed, but because of the very nature of the organisation, it was a logical and humane corollary that the burden of unemployment should not be placed on the backs of these weak men, should not be left to charity or to odds and ends of ill-assorted legislation, but should be dealt with more and more on the lines of Clause III. of the present Bill."

In other words, Mr. Ramsay Macdonald asserts that modern industry requires certain reserves of labour which can be brought up at moments of stress, and that the unemployed constitute these reserves. With certain limitations, we agree (adds the "Spectator"). **But if these reserves are necessary to industry, let the cost of supplying them fall upon the industry, and not upon the State.** Why should the taxpayers and ratepayers pay to keep during certain months of the year men who will be wanted by Messrs. Brown and Smith in order to get their firm very lucrative orders at another portion of the year? No doubt many owners of factories would be in very great difficulties if they could not feel that when large orders came their way they would find a sufficient body of men to help them to carry out those orders. Heretofore, or rather before the great extension of doles to the unemployed, many firms felt this so strongly that in slack periods they took orders at very low rates—rates which gave them no profit, or which even constituted a loss—in order to keep their body of operatives together. They recognised the need of maintaining reserves which can be drawn upon when large orders are coming in at high rates. Here is a good example of the compensating balance in industrial life.

Now, however, the capitalists are beginning to realise that there is little or no risk of their reserves of labour being lost if they do not keep them together by occasionally running their works without a profit. In future the reserves, instead of going elsewhere or melting away, will be kept in being for the good of the manufacturers by the State or the municipality. The onus of maintaining its own reserves is no longer imposed on the industry. The ratepayer and the taxpayer have undertaken the obligation. Being human beings, the employers very naturally fall in with this development of public policy, and shape their own action accordingly.

The plan of providing for what Mr. Ramsay Macdonald calls surplus labour by means of State action carries a double curse. It curses the recipient, and in the end it will bring a curse upon the capitalist who, for the moment, appears to benefit by it. The reason is plain. The power to do good work depends in the last resort upon character and rests on a moral basis, and that moral basis is destroyed when we accept what Bastiat called the great fallacy that the State is an institution upon which everybody can live at the expense of everybody else.

RIGHT TO WORK COUNCIL.

The Right to Work Council consists of the following: Mr. George N. Barnes, M.P., Mr. J. Keir Hardie, M.P., Mr. J. Ramsay Macdonald, M.P., Miss Mary Macarthur, Mrs. Cobden Sanderson, Mr. Harry Quelch, Mr. Edward R. Peace, Mr. George Lansbury (Treasurer), and Mr. Frank Smith, L.C.C. (Secretary), 10, Clifford's Inn, W.C.

The Council insists, as its name suggests, on the right of men to have work found for them. The problem is discussed in Mr. J. R. Macdonald's article on the unemployed in this book.

UNSKILLED LABOUR PROBLEM.

Here are the recommendations of a Charity Organisation Society Committee which investigated the problem of unskilled labour:

"1. The Committee is of opinion that the **system of irregular engagement and the daily payment of unskilled workmen is largely responsible for the poverty and unthriftiness so commonly found in this class.**

"2. The Committee believes that lasting improvement can be effected by **the organisation of the demand for and supply of workmen** so as to increase the extent of the market for labour, and the mobility of the workmen within it.

"3. With this end in view, the Committee recommends that conferences should be arranged to consider, more especially in the case of the building trade and of employment at the docks and wharves, the best form of such organisation.

"4. The Committee, recognising that **employment cannot be rendered wholly regular over a series of years,** or even for one year, emphasises the need for the extended organisation of societies for mutual thrift on the principles of insurance for the purpose of enabling labour to meet industrial risks.

"5. The Committee would draw attention **to the necessity for securing a large measure of industrial training to boys and girls during the years immediately after leaving the elementary school** in occupations likely to lead to permanent employement in after life; and, also, for assisting and encouraging parents to make wise choice in selecting the occupations of their children.

"6. With regard to **the bearing of co-operation and profit-sharing on employment,** we are unable to satisfy ourselves that the use of these methods has a direct effect in increasing the regularity of employment. It may, however, in our opinion, be fairly inferred that these methods have a valuable indirect effect in this direction through the favourable influences thus exerted upon the character and condition of the workers."

TRACK GAMBLING ILLEGAL.

New York State has passed a Bill which makes race-track gambling illegal. It is prohibited by the State Constitution, but for a number of years it has been nullified. Now race-track gambling is illegal in the State.

THE CASE FOR AFFORESTATION.

HOW IT COULD PROVIDE EMPLOYMENT.

The case for afforestation has been set out in a pamphlet by Mr. T. Summerbell, M.P., and published by the Independent Labour Party.

So far as timber is concerned, the world has been **living greatly on its capital**, and not upon its production alone (he says). Vast areas of forests have been destroyed, or their produce converted into timber, and countries which have been large exporters are finding themselves to be in danger of shortage for their own requirements.

According to the Report on Irish Forestry **the area under timber in 1907 in England** was equal to 5·3 per cent., Scotland 4·6 per cent., Wales 3·9 per cent., and Ireland only 1·5 per cent. Whereas in Austria the area under timber was equal to 32 per cent., Hungary 27 per cent., France 17 per cent., Belgium 17 per cent., Germany 26 per cent., Holland 8 per cent., and Denmark 7 per cent. Compared with other countries, we occupy an unenviable position, a continuance of which cannot be justified.

Of the timber we import at the present time, 87 per cent. are pine and fir, 3 per cent. oak, and 10 per cent. teak, mahogany, and other furniture woods. **Hence 90 per cent., or 9,000,000 tons, are material which can be produced in this country by the afforestation of six or seven million acres of land.** The total value of our imports to-day cannot be far short of £30,000,000. The expenditure of only a reasonable sum of this money at home on afforestation would mean employment for a considerable number of our unemployed in digging, trenching, planting, &c. Some experts are of opinion that **every 1,000 acres of added forest would provide work for about 16 men**, representing a population of 80 persons. This is without taking into account those that would ultimately be employed in the transport of the produce, and in the various industries—chair making, cartwrighting, coach building, furniture making, packing box making, the making of bobbins, spools, tool handles, and timber for building trades and railway companies—which regularly managed woodlands generally give rise to.

It is estimated that 2,500 acres of sheep land are looked after by one shepherd, whereas under forestry one man to about 100 acres would be employed; or, in other words, 20 men in place of one. The estimates do not vary to any great extent, and all go to prove that forestry on an adequate scale will provide a great deal of employment, and that is one of its principal advantages to a country.

As to how much land there is available for afforestation, the agricultural returns for 1906 give the following information: England has 2,371,000 acres of mountain and heath land used for grazing; Wales, 1,288,000 acres; Scotland, 9,088,000 acres; and Ireland, 2,244,000 acres,; giving a grand total of 14,922,000 acres available for the purpose. **In addition to this, there is an additional area in Ireland of bog, marsh, barren mountain land, waste, &c., of over 2,000,000 acres, fully one-third of which might be profitably used for the purpose of timber growing.** Great quantities of similar land in England, Wales, and Scotland also exist. The land, therefore, abounds in plenty; and seeing that much of it is at present let for sums varying from 1s. to 2s. 6d. per acre, it will not be seriously argued that it could not be more profitably put to a better use.

As to the **financial aspect of the question**, much valuable information exists to guide us in regard to this point. Whatever might be said as to our climate in other respects, it is all right for the growing of timber, and, therefore, what other countries have achieved, we could equally do. In 1904 the **capital value of the forests in Saxony**, the land, and the timber standing upon it, came to £19,070,606, and calculated according to the outlay, with compound interest at 3½ per cent., it comes to £48 8s. per acre. Taking the forests of Saxony all round, good, bad, and indifferent, there is a return equal to 2½ per cent. on the present capital value. Dr. Schlich, at a conference on afforestation in London, on June 25th, 1907, gave particulars of a larch wood of 208 acres belonging to Sir Herbert Lewis. The wood was cut down some years ago, the locality being a very steep hillside, and the soil light sandy loam, but not deep. The rental value of the locality was originally given at 5s. per acre per annum. At 30 years' purchase the value of the soil comes to £7 10s. per acre. The actual returns were as follows: From thinnings, £4,500; from final fellings at the age of 50 years, £14,500. Throwing the thinnings together with the final yield, the total receipts came to £19,000, or £91 per acre at the age of 50 years. Putting the cost of planting at £5 per acre, which, according to Sir Herbert, is more than it did cost, the result is that this plantation has given all round compound interest at 5½ per cent.

Mr. Fraser Story, of the University College of North Wales, Bangor, in an interesting article to the "Manchester Guardian," points out that the actual experience of Western Europe is that afforestation may be **highly remunerative**. The Hartz Mountains yield a revenue of 14s. per acre, while the Giant Mountains in Silesia (a wild district) give a return of about £1 per acre. The woods belonging to the town of Zurich, in Switzerland, yield a net revenue of 30s. per acre, and goes to demonstrate what can be done under favourable conditions. Taken together, both the good and the bad, the State woods of Germany, extending over 10,000,000 acres of land, produce 11s. per acre of profit each year, and they give employment to nearly 100,000 people.

OVERCROWDED TOWNS.

Here are some figures which show the percentage of persons living more than two in a room in some of the chief towns:

	Percentage.
Liverpool	7·94
Leeds	10·08
London	16·01
Edinburgh	32·94
Dundee	49·44
Glasgow	54·70

TO PROTECT HOME-WORKERS.

WAGES BOARDS SUGGESTED

A Select Committee, with Sir Thomas Whittaker as Chairman, was appointed "to consider and report upon the conditions of labour in trades in which home-work is prevalent, and the proposals, including those for the establishments of wages boards and the licensing of work-places, which have been made for the remedying of existing abuses."

The Committee think that it is not desirable to prohibit or to attempt to stamp out home-work. They say:

"There are a number of people who, for various reasons, cannot go to factories and workshops and undertake the continuous attendance and work which are there required. There are others to whom it would involve serious inconvenience, and, indeed, hardship. They are glad to work at home. They earn an extremely welcome addition to the family income. To prevent them from so doing would be indefensible, unless it were shown that such drastic action was absolutely essential in order to secure a great public advantage. In our judgment, this has not been proved. On the other hand, we are of opinion that, by means of legislation, some earnest effort should be made to remedy the evils which undoubtedly exist."

The Committee's conclusions are:

(1) That there should be legislation with regard to the rates of payment made to Home-Workers who are employed in the production or preparation of articles for sale by other persons.

(2) That such legislation should at first be tentative and experimental, and be limited in its scope to Home-Workers engaged in the tailoring, shirtmaking, underclothing and baby-linen trades, and in the finishing processes of machine-made lace. The Home Secretary should be empowered, after inquiry made, to establish Wages Boards for any other trades.

(3) That Wages Boards should be established in selected trades to fix minimum time and piece-rates of payment for home-workers in those trades.

(4) That it should be an offence to pay or offer lower rates of payment to home-workers in those trades than the minimum rates which had been fixed for that district by the Wages Board.

(5) That the delivery and collection of work done at home should be done by persons in the direct employ and pay of the employer. Where that was not done, the amount which a worker could earn in a specified time should be calculated on a basis which included the time spent in fetching and returning the work as time occupied in doing the work.

(6) That all home-workers who are employed by other persons in producing or preparing articles for sale should be required to register their name, address, and class of work at, and receive a certificate of such registration from, the offices of the Local Authority, and that the keeping of accurate out-workers' lists by employers should be strictly enforced.

(7) That it should be an offence for any person to employ any home-worker to produce or prepare any articles for sale by another person unless the worker produce a certificate of registration.

(8) That the provisions of Section 9 of the Public Health Act, 1875, with regard to factories and workshops which are not kept clean or are ill-ventilated or overcrowded, should be extended to rooms in which home-work is done, and power should be given to sanitary and factory inspectors to inspect them and secure the enforcement of the law.

(9) That the full protection of the Truck Act should be secured to Home-Workers.

The Committee believe that the establishment of Wages Boards "goes to the root of the matter, in so far as the object aimed at is an increase in the wages of the home-workers."

The Report says:

"One safeguard against most, if not all, the conceivable harm which could possibly result from the unwise use by Wages Boards of the powers which your Committee suggest should be conferred upon them will be found in the fact that the proposal is that the Boards should be composed of employers and employed who are engaged in the trades with regard to which they would fix rates of payment. No one could be more deeply concerned than they would be that every precaution should be taken that nothing be done that would really curtail the trade with which all their interests were so closely allied. No one would more speedily perceive and feel the effects of an imprudent decision, and it would be within their power to amend it promptly. We believe that the members of these Boards would approach the discharge of their duties in a spirit of moderation, with a strong sense of fairness, and a full appreciation of the importance of the issues which would be submitted to them.

"There is no reason why they should not be able to decide what are the lowest rates of payment which may reasonably and equitably be made for work done under specified conditions in selected industries. They could at least secure the levelling up of the rates of payment in their respective trades to those adopted by the best employers in those trades. We have been impressed by the testimony we have received to the effect that most, if not indeed all, employers would be glad to have fixed a minimum rate of payment and conditions below which neither they nor their competitors should be allowed to go. If nothing more than this were accomplished by the adoption of the recommendations which we make, a substantial step would be taken in the improvement of the position of that portion of our people whose special circumstances we have been considering.

"Upon the question of the general policy of Parliament fixing or providing for the fixing of a minimum rate of payment for work, below which it should be illegal to employ people, your Committee are of opinion that it is quite as legitimate to establish by legislation a minimum standard of remuneration as it is to establish such a standard of sanitation, cleanliness, ventilation, air space, and hours

of work. If it be said that there may be industries which cannot be carried on if such a standard of payment be enforced, it may be replied that this was said when the enactment of many of the provisions of the Factory and other similar Acts were proposed, and public opinion supported Parliament in deciding that, if the prognostication were an accurate one, it would be better that any trade which could not exist if such a minimum of decent and humane conditions were insisted upon should cease.

"Parliament, with the full approval of the nation, has practically so decided again and again, when enactments have been passed forbidding the carrying on of specified interests, unless certain minimum conditions as to health, safety, and comfort are complied with. It is doubtful whether there is any more important condition of individual and general well-being than the possibility of obtaining an income sufficient to enable those who earn it to secure, at any rate, the necessaries of life."

Wages Boards in Australia.—The Home Secretary appointed Mr. Ernest Aves in 1907 to make an investigation into the following important labour enactments in Australia and New Zealand:

(1) **The systems of Wages Boards** which have been established in some of the Australian Colonies; their working; the measure of success attained, with reference especially to the prevention of sweating; and the conditions which have made success possible;

(2) **the systems of compulsory arbitration in industrial disputes** which have been established in Australia and New Zealand; their working; the measure of success attained; and the conditions which have made success possible.

Mr. Aves has issued his report (Cd. 4,167), and made certain suggestions.

"A fair wage and the maintainance of industrial peace are great objectives (he says), and it is from the desire to secure and maintain these that much of the industrial legislation of Australasia has sprung.

"The Wages Boards (he says), especially those formed in the women's trades, are greatly valued and are widely believed in, and a chief explanation of this must be found, not so much in any demonstrable and lasting effects that they have had on the individual earnings of women, as in the increased feeling of security that they give, and in the belief that they make treatment more uniformly fair.

"The Boards have helped both in the home and in the factory, and probably not simply in the trades under them, to set a more certain standard. They are also believed to mark out a point below which, should reaction come, wages will not (at least, without greater difficulty) fall. The test of this period of decline has, it is true, not been reached, and should it come, the Determinations may break down. But while maintained, or sometimes even when exceeded, they are felt to be a source of strength. They affect sentiment—both public and private. They help to establish beneficial customs; and if character is not thereby weakened, this is a great gain. They become, moreover, something which the conscience, not only of the trade, but also of the community, has to take into account."

SWEATED INDUSTRIES BILL.

The House of Commons on February 21st, 1908, passed the Second Reading of the Sweated Industries Bill, introduced by Mr. Toulmin. The Bill was referred to the Home Work Committee.

"Labour," said Mr. Toulmin, "had done much for itself, thanks to organisation, but that organisation was the work of individual trades, and as one went down one reached depths at which the atoms had no cohesion. The people would not combine. **The first step necessary was inquiry.** Under the Bill a trade union or trade council or any six employers or workmen could ask for inquiry, which the Home Secretary would direct. If he thought fit, as the result of the inquiry, he could set up a Wages Board. The kernel of the proposal was to have representatives of the men and the employers sitting together, in equal numbers, with an independent chairman, with power to draw up a list of wages for the particular trade in that particular district. The tribunal was not new, nor were the duties new. The minimum rate of wages could vary according to the district, as it did now in certain trades.

"The novel principle in the Bill," added Mr. Toulmin, "**was that the sanction of the State was given to the decision of the board, and that payment of less than the minimum wage became a punishable offence.**

"This kind of State action was not unknown; it took place in Melbourne, and had had good results. The Bill was elastic, and its object would be well served by the patient drawing up of lists of wages. No national interest would be injured, capital would not suffer, nor would the consumer, to whom the price would probably not change, though the quality of the work might be improved."

LORD MILNER'S VIEW.

Lord Milner is a defender of the Minimum Wage. Speaking on Sweated Industries, "he contended that the proposal which was made that the State should intervene to secure, not an all-round minimum wage, but standard rates of remuneration, the same wages for the same work, and nothing less than that wage for any worker, was not a proposition that it should do anything that was new or exceptional or impracticable; it was a proposition that the State should intervene to do for the weakest and most helpless workers what the strong, organised trades already did for themselves. He could not see that there was anything unreasonable, much less anything revolutionary or subversive, in that proposal.

"Many people looked askance, and justly looked askance, at the interference of the State in anything so complicated and technical as the fixing of a schedule of wages in any particular industry. But the point was this, **that wages which under this proposal would be enforceable by law would be wages fixed for a particular industry in a particular district by persons intimately cognisant of all the circumstances of the case; and, more than that, by persons who would all have the deepest common interest in not doing anything to injure their industry.**"

WHY ARE WOMEN'S WAGES LOW?

SOME STRIKING OFFICIAL CANADIAN COMMENTS.

"**Why,**" asks the Chief Canadian Census Officer, in his report of the 1901 census, "**are the earnings of female employees so much lower than those of males in almost every kind of occupation for which statistics are furnished? And why, in particular, are they lower in occupations for which females have a special fitness?**

"The average earnings of females employed in business of the trade and transportation class are less than one-half of the average for males. It is, indeed, only in the agricultural and personal and domestic classes that the earnings of female employees are more than one-half those of males.

"The records of the census do not permit of an answer being given to these questions," continues this officer, "and in many cases it is probable that no answer can be given, except that females were so long proscribed as wage-earners and have not yet won recognition as the equals of males in the eyes of employers. In many occupations they were not allowed to compete with males until a time well within the memory of men still living. In the United States they began to find employment in offices only during the years of the Civil War, when men to the number of hundreds of thousands had been drafted into the army, and it was twenty years later before they were admitted to positions in Government and business offices in Canada. It may be said, therefore, that they have not acquired a status for skill and efficiency by the test of time.

"In such lines of occupations as those of the cotton and woollen mills, where women have been employed for more than a hundred years, their disability as measured by the gauge of earnings still continues to prevail, but to a less marked degree than elsewhere. In cotton mills the average earnings of 3,165 males in Canada is 320 dols., and of 2,718 females 206 dols.; in woollen mills the average of 2,165 males is 306 dols., and of 1,782 females 182 dols.; and of factory operatives not specified the average of 8,667 males is 309 dols., and of 4,083 females 174 dols. In many other occupations the contrasts are greater, although in the apparent nature of things man has no superiority to woman in doing more work or work of a better quality.

"But the question of the employment of women in industrial occupations has other interests than the earning of wages, as has been shown by one of the present-day writers on economic subjects. 'When industry was chiefly confined to domestic handicrafts,' John A. Hobson says, 'the claims of home life constantly pressed in and tempered the industrial life. The growth of factory work among women has brought with it inevitably a weakening of home interests and a neglect of home duties. The home has suffered what the factory has gained. Even the shortening of the factory day, accompanied as it has been by an intensification of labour during the shorter hours, does not leave the women competent and free for the proper ordering of home life.

"'Home work is consciously slighted as secondary in importance and inferior, because it brings no wages, and if not neglected is performed in a perfunctory manner, which robs it of its grace and value. **This narrowing of the home into a place of hurried meals and sleep is, on the whole, the worst injury modern industry has inflicted on our lives, and it is difficult to see how it can be compensated by any increase of material products.** Factory life for women, save in extremely rare cases, saps the physical and moral health of the family. The exigencies of factory life are inconsistent with the position of a good mother, a good wife, or the maker of a home. Save in extreme circumstances, no increase of the family wage can balance these losses, whose values stand upon a higher qualitative level.' ('Evolution of Modern Capitalism,' p. 320.)

"The natural vocation of woman, it is said, is that of wife and mother and manager of a household; and therefore she ought not to be encouraged to come into competition with man in every other occupation, and so with her cheaper and less efficient service make it harder for man to get employment at a living wage. The situation has its difficulties, and the dislocation of earnings caused by the recent projection of woman into the sphere has not been reduced or even adjusted yet.

"**But is she less efficient than the average man in performance of work which does not call for exercise of mere physical strength, as required in handling the axe, the spade, the hammer, the lathe, or the stevedore's hook, or in such employments as ironfoundering, river driving, railroading, steamboating, mining, or working a rolling mill? Is she much, or at all,** inferior to man in employments where an educated hand or an informed mind ensure celerity and accuracy in the work to be done?

"She has quickness of apprehension, she is practical, and she has in a high degree the sustaining nervous temperament which does not tire until the work is ended or the trial is over. Therefore it may be said that woman possesses special qualities which commend her for consideration in any scheme of the readjustment of earnings. Problems of this nature, however, are not easily worked out. They belong to the complex experimental order in which the human will is a factor, and, therefore, within limitations, the conditions are never constant. A solution may be approached, if not arrived at, to which end no data are so useful as records of statistics and observations covering a series of years and a wide extent of collection area.

"It is, of course, no part of the purpose of this Bulletin to discover a workable theory for the solution of a problem of discontent that is world-wide in effect and operation. **The figures published in the tables show for the first time in any country what the facts are for every kind of occupation as regards the number and sex of the employed, their working time and their earnings, and employers and employees may now make comparative studies along many lines.** (See next page.)

"Employers may feel that the amount paid for wages is adequate, though perhaps not equably distributed; male employees may feel that the only successful way of overcoming the competition of cheap labour is to pay wages according to efficiency of service, regardless of

sex or kind of service; and female employees will no doubt feel that the mere disability of sex ought no longer to prevail against themselves, but that if they can do a man's work they should receive a man's wage.

"There is also the public interest, which for the most part is only general except in so far as a living wage and contentment therewith are concerned, for, to use an old figure, meanness towards the ox that treadeth out the corn is a thing abhorred. But there are also cases in which the public interest is special, as in the payment of those employed in the public offices to do the country's business, or of those employed in the public schools to teach and educate the boys and girls who are to be the men and women of the next generation."

Miss Clementina Black, speaking in defence of wages boards, said:

"Old people ought not, of course, to be at work at all. The worst evil of sweating of all is that children are compelled to work; but the way out of that is to get the parents better paid. A woman with small children does not go out to work because she likes it, but because she wants to earn bread for her family. My greatest hope of all from wages boards is not so much that it will reduce the misery of those unfortunate people, as that it will give them a chance to become better citizens.

"No one who goes, as some of us have done, among the worst-paid workers of this country can fail to be struck with the enormous amount of good material that is being wasted. We want to keep these people good citizens. We want that bright, intelligent girls shall be kept on the level they occupy, and shall not become worn, dragged-out-looking women, looking fifty before they are thirty."

CANADA'S WAGE-EARNERS.

The Canadian Census of 1901 enumerated by occupations 922,591 persons—736,549 males and 186,042 females. The population from 15 to 64 years inclusive comprised 1,652,090 males and 1,560,637 females, and about 40 per cent. of the former and 10 per cent. of the latter were fully enumerated as wage-earners.

If full returns had been received for the 922,591 wage-earners enumerated by occupations (says the Census Bulletin), they would show for the year aggregate time of 9,762,000 months and aggregate earnings of 319,000,000 dols., computed on the averages of time and earnings of the 814,930 persons for whom full returns have been given and compiled. The table shows actual time of 6,967,256 months for males and 1,656,665 months for females, with an average of 10·53 months in the year for the former and of 10·79 months for the latter, which is equal to 661,658 years of one man's and 153,537 years of one woman's time.

The number of persons employed at their regular occupations, together with their total and average earnings, is shown for classes and sexes in the table below.

The largest number of males is employed in the manufacturing, trade, and transportation and agricultural classes, and the largest number of females in the domestic and personal, manufacturing, and professional classes. The largest earnings of males are won in the manufacturing, trade and transportation, and domestic and personal classes, and of females in the manufacturing, professional, and domestic and personal classes. The highest average earnings of males are obtained in the professional, mining, and trade and transportation classes, and of females in the professional, trade and transportation and manufacturing classes. But, naturally enough in a country like ours, where women are treated with high consideration, they do not obtain employment at all in occupations requiring strenuous toil.

The Canadian census of manufactures taken in 1905, the results of which were issued in 1907, shows considerable alteration in the economic status of women in Canada.

Female workers in 1900 aggregated 76,230; in 1905 this number was reduced to 71,373, a decrease of 4,857, or 6·37 per cent. But salaries and wages had increased by 3,551,707 dollars, or 27·88 per cent. The salaries alone increased by 153 per cent; wages alone increased 20 per cent. Canadian female labour in the five years altered its quantity, quality, and rewards.

EARNINGS AT REGULAR WORK BY CLASSES OF OCCUPATIONS.

Classes.	Number at Regular Work.		Earnings at Regular Work. Total.		Average.	
	m.	f.	m.	f.	m.	f.
	No.	No.	Dols.	Dols.	Dols.	Dols.
Agricultural	72,693	92	15,088,523	13,453	207·55	146·23
Domestic and personal	140,978	67,752	38,411,472	9,285,169	272·46	137·05
Fisheries	7,372	—	1,513,931	—	205·36	—
Forestry and lumbering	16,438	—	5,014,821	—	305·07	—
Manufacturing	226,001	49,662	91,110,433	9,597,784	403·14	193·26
Mining	23,898	—	12,278,110	—	513·77	—
Miscellaneous	523	—	202,745	—	387·65	—
Professional	29,574	22,110	20,018,090	5,731,011	676·88	259·20
Trade and Transportation	144,005	13,829	72,466,667	3,296,776	503·22	238·39
Totals	661,485	153,445	256,104,792	27,924,193	387·16	181·98

THE WORKERS OF CANADA.

A CENSUS OF CAPITAL, EMPLOYEES, WAGES, & PRODUCTS.

Canada made its first attempt to collect its **manufacturing statistics through the post in 1906.** The next general census will be in 1911, but it has been decided to take, in intercensual years, manufacturing and other statistics.

Here is a table which shows for Canada, and also for each province, the number of its manufacturing establishments, the capital employed in them, the number of employees, the salaries and wages paid, and the value of the ensuing products.

Economists (says the Census Officer) claim to have demonstrated the existence of a law by which in proportion as capital increases the absolute share of profit falling to capital may be augmented and the relative share is diminished, whilst the share of the labourer is increased both absolutely and relatively. The operation of this law appears to receive partial illustration by the figures given. It is not quite clear, however, why the cost of labour per cent. of products should in Ontario and Quebec, and

PRINCIPAL STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES FOR ALL ESTABLISHMENTS IN 1905.

Provinces.	Establishments.	Capital.	Employees.	Salaries and wages.	Value of Products.
	No.	Dols.	No.	Dols.	Dols.
Canada	15,796	846,585,023	392,530	165,100,011	718,352,603
Alberta	120	5,545,821	2,045	1,167,107	5,116,782
British Columbia	459	53,022,033	23,748	11,413,315	38,288,378
Manitoba	354	27,517,297	10,333	5,909,791	28,155,732
New Brunswick	628	26,792,698	19,426	6,581,411	22,133,951
Nova Scotia	909	75,089,181	21,237	9,284,864	32,574,323
Ontario	7,996	397,484,795	189,370	82,415,520	367,850,002
Prince Edward Island	285	1,680,541	2,919	445,676	1,851,615
Quebec	4,965	255,479,662	119,008	47,160,452	219,861,648
Saskatchewan	80	3,973,075	1,444	721,875	2,520,172

There thus existed in 1905 throughout the Dominion 15,796 industrial establishments, which possessed an aggregate capital of 846,585,023 dols., employed 392,530 persons at a cost for salaries and wages of 165,100,011 dols., and turned out products to the value of 717, 352, 603 dols.

Here is another interesting table which shows **the cost of labour in Canada at per cent. of value of its products in 1900 and 1905.** From this will be seen the

COST OF LABOUR AT PER CENT. OF VALUE OF PRODUCTS, 1900 AND 1905.

Provinces.	1900.	1905.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Canada	23·54	22·95
British Columbia	28·06	29·77
Manitoba	18·72	20·82
New Brunswick	27·41	29·76
Nova Scotia	23·79	28·57
Ontario	23·41	22·34
Prince Edward Island	19·17	24·16
Quebec	23·09	21·49
Alberta } Saskatchewan }	23·70	{ 22·68 { 27·88

In every province except Ontario and Quebec, which, however, represent by far the largest proportion of the value of the manufactured products of Canada, **the cost of labour per cent. of products is higher in 1905 than it was in 1900, indicating** that in those provinces a still smaller rate of profit has been available for the capitalist manufacturer, though he has, of course, received a much larger absolute return, owing to increased business.

for all Canada, be higher in 1900 than in 1905. Possibly the explanation is to be found in connection with the increase of prices and its relative effect in the different provinces during the five years. If the demand had not greatly exceeded the supply, the balance in the two largest manufacturing provinces might have been on the other side, and the differences noted in the other provinces might have been still further accentuated.

The table below shows **the values of capital and products in ten of the Canadian principal cities.**

The increase per cent. in the value of capital is in Montreal, 65; Toronto, 28; Hamilton, 109; Winnipeg, 330; London, 60; Ottawa, 23; Peterborough, 289; Quebec, 24; Halifax, 45; and Vancouver, 89. The increase per cent. in the value of products is, in Montreal, 40; Toronto, 47; Hamilton, 44; Winnipeg, 120; London, 55; Ottawa, 39; Peterborough, 205; Halifax, 18; and Vancouver, 102. Quebec shows a decrease of 11 per cent. in the value of products.

Cities.	Capital.	Products.
	Dols.	Dols.
Montreal	94,386,143	99,746,772
Toronto	66,521,098	85,714,278
Hamilton	28,232,820	21,625,776
Winnipeg	20,131,057	18,983,290
London	10,898,196	12,625,844
Ottawa	12,704,780	10,641,378
Peterborough	12,140,282	11,566,805
Quebec	11,902,426	11,388,045
Halifax	9,657,792	8,145,016
Vancouver	13,124,593	10,067,556

THE EXTENT OF PAUPERISM.

ONE MILLION PAUPERS IN 1908.

The **mean** number of paupers—indoor and outdoor—in England and Wales at Lady Day, 1908, was 772,346, or 22·1 per 1,000 of the population. Of these, 3·2 were able-bodied.

This is the lowest figure of the last four years, during which the ratio has been 22 with a small decimal. For five years preceding 1905 it was only 21 per 1,000, and between 1894 and 1899 it was over 23 per 1,000, except in 1898, when it was 22·9 per 1,000.

Indoor pauperism, however, has increased, and in 1908 stood at the highest figure since 1894. The numbers in 1908 were 237,549, or 6·8 per 1,000. In 1894 the ratio was only 6·1.

Outdoor pauperism, on the other hand, has decreased. In 1908 the numbers were 535,452, or 15·3 per 1,000, as against 518,722, or 17·4, in 1894.

Here are the figures for England and Wales for certain years between 1894 and 1908:

Years (ended Lady-day).	Indoor Paupers. Mean Number.	Indoor Paupers. Ratio per 1,000 of estimated Population.	Outdoor Paupers. Mean Number.	Outdoor Paupers. Ratio per 1,000 of estimated Population.	Total. Mean Number.	Total. Ratio per 1,000 of estimated Population.
	All Classes, except Casual Paupers and Insane.					
1894 ..	179,881	6·1	518,722	17·4	698,603	23·5
1898 ..	187,664	6·0	525,202	16·9	712,866	22·9
1902 ..	195,528	6·0	497,500	15·3	692,875	21·2
1906 ..	229,724	6·7	545,141	16·0	774,209	22·7
1907 ..	232,329	6·7	537,449	15·6	769,160	22·3
1908 ..	237,549	6·8	535,452	15·3	772,346	22·1
	Adults, Able-bodied.					
1894 ..	32,992	1·1	72,221	2·4	105,213	3·5
1898 ..	35,884	1·1	64,562	2·1	100,446	3·2
1902 ..	35,095	1·1	59,586	1·8	94,681	2·9
1906 ..	46,547	1·4	70,036	2·1	116,583	3·4
1907 ..	45,384	1·3	66,119	1·9	111,503	3·2
1908 ..	46,135	1·3	65,040	1·9	111,175	3·2

PAUPERISM IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Here is a table which shows the figures of pauperism for the three countries and for the United Kingdom. And as the number varies in winter and summer the mean number is given for one day in each period. From this table it will be seen that there were in 1908 over a million paupers both in summer and winter:

INDUSTRIAL ASSURANCE.

A resolution was adopted at the Trade Union Congress urging the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the whole system of industrial assurance. Mr. David Jones made the statement that no less than £30,000,000 was contributed in premiums for industrial assurance alone. There were, he said, 40,000 agents and collectors.

Years.	Number of Paupers (exclusive of Casual Paupers). England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Proportion of Paupers per 10,000 of estimated Population.
	On One Day in the Winter.				
1894.	812,441	95,068	103,661	1,011,170	261
1906.	909,918	111,201	103,302	1,124,421	260
1907.	905,881	111,145	102,895	1,119,921	257
1908.	911,588	111,476	102,530	1,125,594	255
	On One Day in the Summer.				
1893..	745,555	91,419	97,847	934,821	243
1905..	854,857	107,860	112,520	1,075,237	249
1906..	852,777	107,098	97,730	1,057,605	242
1907..	856,868	106,318	97,735	1,060,921	241

HOW PEOPLE LIVE.

RESULTS OF BOARD OF TRADE INQUIRIES.

A very interesting and valuable series of inquiries are just being completed by the Board of Trade.

It published in 1903 and 1904 the results of an inquiry as to the cost of living of the working classes in urban districts of the United Kingdom. These were based on a large number of budgets of working-class families. But they were incomplete in respect to the rents paid and food commodities.

These details are now supplied in a new report (1908) on "working-class rents, housing, and retail prices, together with the standard rate of wages prevailing in certain occupations in the principal industrial towns of the United Kingdom." This report gives material for a comparison in regard to the cost of living applicable as between the various districts of the United Kingdom and also in foreign countries.

Similar inquiries were undertaken by the Board in the industrial towns of Germany and France on identical lines. The German report is issued and dealt with elsewhere. The French book will soon be published.

The result of this inquiry so far as it constitutes a rent and prices and wages barometer in a number of the chief towns in the United Kingdom is set out on pages 233–4. The report also gives much matter on overcrowding, transport of women to and from work, and public health.

As Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox points out, there are many difficulties in comparing different parts of the country, but allowance is made where possible. He points out that oatmeal is consumed largely by the Scotch working-classes, but hardly at all in England; whilst, on the other hand, foreign and Colonial meat—a common article of food in England—is much less used in most parts of Scotland.

The rent index numbers are based on a smaller number of rooms, but the Scottish rooms are, as a rule, somewhat larger than the English, though, on the other hand, an English workman's dwelling of three or four rooms usually has some conveniences which are lacking in Scotch houses.

Rents in London are remarkably high as compared with other parts of the country. In Scotland the rents in the capital are only slightly higher than those in the other towns; but in Ireland, Dublin shows a markedly higher level than the rest of the country. If we exclude London, the variation of rents in England and Wales is not very great, and prices are, on the whole, singularly uniform, with the result that for equal accommodation and equal provision of food and fuel, the necessary expenditure would not differ very much from one town to another.

The comparisons made in the present investigation (says Mr. Fox) between the relative levels of wages, rents, and the retail prices of commodities in different industrial centres does not disclose a sufficiently close connection between the local variations of wages and cost of living to justify any general conclusion beyond the well established fact that both factors are higher in London than in other parts of the United Kingdom. Further light, however, on this question may be thrown when the inquiry now in progress as to the earnings of the working-classes in all trades is completed.

Here is a summarised table showing the prices, index numbers for all commodities and for groceries, coal, and meat respectively for Scotland and Ireland as compared with London:

District.	All Commodities.	Groceries, excluding Coal.	Coal.	Meat.
London ..	100	100	100	100
Scotland ..	102	105	76	108
Ireland ..	97	103	84	88

HOW FAR WAGES GO.

Here is another table which shows how far total wages go, as judged by what they buy of commodities and real comfort in certain geographical groups.

Geographical Group.	Rents and Prices Combined.	Wages of Skilled Men in Building, Engineering, and Printing.	Approximate Level of Real Wages.
England and Wales:			
London	100	100	100
N. Counties and Cleveland	90	86	96
Yorkshire	87	84	97
Lancs and Cheshire	84	87	104
Midlands	85	85	100
Eastern Counties ..	88	76	86
Southern Counties ..	93	80	86
Wales and Monmouth	89	86	97
Scotland	95	83	87
Ireland	87	84	97

POOR RATE.

Here is a table showing that over £36,000,000 a year is raised in the three countries for the Poor Rate:

Year.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
1902–3	28,321,798	1,225,160	1,263,302
1903–4	30,299,446	1,312,893	1,284,477
1904–5	32,267,015	1,379,922	1,279,343
1905–6	34,462,817	1,460,971	1,301,143
1906–7	34,842,515	1,448,845	1,339,113

For relief of the poor—the Poor Rate being raised for other purposes as well—£13,957,224 was spent in England and Wales in 1906–7; £1,422,375 in Scotland; and £1,288,713 in Ireland.

A RENT AND FOOD BAROMETER.

WHERE TO GET CHEAP RENTS AND PRICES.

Following is a table which shows at a glance the comparative cost in a number of towns in the United Kingdom of rent, prices; also rent and prices combined; also the rates of wages in the building, engineering, furnishing and printing trades. The table is taken from the Board of Trade Enquiry (Cd. 3,864).

For each item London is taken for a standard for comparison, and the number 100 represents rent, prices and wages in London. These items in other towns have been elaborately worked out to what is called "an index number," so that they may be comparable. Rent in London being 100, rents in Luton are much cheaper, representing only 61 as against London's 100. No place beats London for high rents. But when it comes to prices of food, it will be seen that Chatham, Croydon, Ipswich and several other places are more costly for food.

The figures deal with the month of October, 1905. Since then the period is too short to notice any change in rents. But between 1905 and 1907 retail prices of twenty-one articles of food in London advanced 1 per cent. Coal went up 13 per cent.; beef, 3 per cent.; pork, 2 per cent.; bread went down 4 per cent. Wages in the same period went up.

Expenditure on Food.—To get at the actual expenditure of the working-classes on certain articles of food details were secured from about 1,944 families. It was found that the total expenditure on food for families with varying incomes was as follows:

Average Income.		Cost of Food.	
s.	d.	s.	d.
21	4¼	14	4¾
26	11¾	17	10½
31	11½	20	9¼
36	6¼	22	3½
52	0½	29	8

Taking the average for all, the income was 36s. 10d. weekly, and the cost of food, 22s. 6d. The proportion of income spent on food diminishes as the income increases. In the case of incomes below 30s., two-thirds of the total income is spent on food; while in the case of incomes of 40s. and above, about 57 per cent. is spent on food.

In the case of incomes below 25s., the expenditure on bread and flour forms about 21 per cent. of the total spent on food; for incomes between 35s. and 40s., the proportion is 15·0 per cent. The quantity of bread and flour purchased varies from 28½ to 37¾lb. per week, the average being 32lb.

The average expenditure on meat and fish of all kinds is 6s. 4¾d. per week, but this varies with the income. The average spent on milk is 1s. 3¼d.

A working-class family is assumed to consume in a week the following quantities of selected commodities

Tea ..	0·6	lb.	Potatoes	17	lb.
Sugar ..	5¼	„	Flour ..	10	„
Bacon ..	1¼	„	Bread ..	22	„
Eggs ..	12		Milk ..	10	pints
Cheese ..	¾	„	Meat ..	6¼	lb.
Butter ..	2	„	Coal ..	2	cwts.

Towns arranged alphabetically, showing index numbers of Rent, Prices, Rent and Prices Combined, and Rates of Wages.

Town.			Rent and Prices Combined.	Rates of Wages. Building. Skill'd Men.	Building. Lab'rs.	Engineering. Skill'd Men.	Engineering. Lab'rs.	Furnishing.	Printing.
England and Wales:									
Barrow-in-Furness	63	99	92	91	98	89	82	—	85
Bedford	49	99	89	85	78	74	—	—	64
Birkenhead	70	92	88	89	86	93	83	89	92
Birmingham	59	91	85	98	100	91	83	86	88
Blackburn..	50	89	81	87	86	89	79	81	83
Bolton	53	89	82	90	94	89	79	90	85
Bradford	59	95	88	83	85	87	96	83	85
Bristol	53	95	87	93	94	91	87	82	79
Burnley	53	95	87	85	87	85	—	84	81
Burton-on-Trent	52	92	84	87	90	82	83	—	77
Cardiff	59	99	91	92	85	94	—	81	82
Carlisle	58	97	89	81	76	83	79	—	77
Castleford	53	94	86	85	100	—	—	—	
Chatham and Gillingham	49	101	91	89	87	—	—	—	
Chester	50	94	85	89	84	84	75	87	81
Coventry	49	99	89	93	94	92	92	—	77
Crewe	48	93	84	82	85	75	—	—	—
Croydon	81	104	99	105	110	—	—	—	77
Darlington	58	98	90	83	85	90	—	—	82
Derby	51	93	85	92	88	85	77	—	85
Dover	56	106	96	87	83	—	—	—	64
Gateshead..	66	98	92	90	89	89	—	—	90
Gloucester	48	92	83	84	81	80	79	84	72

Town.	Rent.	Prices.	Rent and Prices Combined.	Rates of Wages. Building. Skill'd Men.	Building. Lab'rs.	Engineering. Skill'd Men.	Engineering. Lab'rs.	Furnishing.	Printing.
Grimsby	58	93	86	85	96	—	—	—	72
Halifax	55	94	86	82	86	85	83	79	83
Hanley	51	90	82	86	95	85	—	86	82
Huddersfield	64	97	90	81	85	77	—	81	77
Hull	48	99	89	91	101	92	94	81	82
Ipswich	44	103	91	86	86	75	79	—	72
Jarrow	68	98	92	91	89	89	—	87	76
Keighley	57	92	85	77	85	76	—	81	72
Kidderminster	43	93	83	86	82	82	—	—	67
Leeds	56	93	86	87	94	85	—	87	91
Leicester	48	93	84	94	101	87	83	90	86
Lincoln	54	98	89	83	86	74	79	—	72
Liverpool and Bootle	65	91	86	89	78	93	81	87	94
London	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Luton	61	101	93	85	81	—	—	—	76
Macclesfield	32	90	78	81	78	—	—	84	77
Manchester and Salford	62	92	86	95	92	91	83	88	90
Merthyr Tydvil	50	97	88	83	83	—	—	—	72
Middlesborough	59	95	88	90	95	90	92	—	82
Newcastle-on-Tyne	76	98	94	90	89	89	89	90	90
Newport (Mon.)	63	92	86	87	85	90	79	84	79
Normanton	57	91	84	79	85	—	—	—	—
Northampton	49	95	86	86	85	—	—	—	77
Norwich	48	97	87	83	80	—	—	69	69
Nottingham	56	96	88	92	96	92	75	90	88
Oldham	60	95	88	92	92	87	—	83	87
Peterborough	39	95	84	79	78	74	83	—	—
Plymouth and Devonport	81	99	95	80	80	90	83	—	77
Portsmouth	57	105	95	85	95	88	92	75	77
Preston	48	90	82	86	84	89	75	85	83
Reading	58	101	92	89	87	80	84	—	74
Rochdale	52	93	85	89	86	87	—	84	82
St. Helens	56	91	84	88	85	89	—	81	—
Sheerness	59	104	95	85	81	—	—	—	—
Sheffield	55	93	85	85	84	96	92	83	90
Southampton	65	103	95	84	81	94	88	75	67
South Shields	61	94	87	88	86	90	—	—	81
Stockport	51	88	81	93	90	92	79	91	87
Stockton-on-Tees	54	99	90	90	95	89	83	84	78
Stoke-on-Trent	54	90	83	86	95	85	—	—	82
Sunderland	59	94	87	88	86	89	88	—	85
Swansea	68	95	90	86	85	91	81	86	79
Swindon	59	98	90	76	74	79	—	—	—
Taunton	47	96	86	74	69	77	79	—	62
Walsall	43	90	81	90	96	82	—	—	82
Warrington	50	92	84	95	93	91	79	89	—
Wigan	50	88	80	95	93	89	79	91	82
Wolverhampton	53	89	82	90	95	84	79	—	83
Worcester	56	94	86	86	85	82	71	—	77
York	53	96	87	85	89	83	—	—	79
Scotland:									
Aberdeen	84	96	94	91	91	90	—	88	93
Dundee	92	103	101	100	99	91	—	90	98
Edinburgh and Leith	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Falkirk	91	99	97	98	100	93	103	91	88
Galashiels	69	105	98	90	91	—	—	—	84
Glasgow	99	98	98	104	103	103	92	101	105
Greenock	92	100	98	103	100	105	92	—	105
Kilmarnock	86	99	96	98	94	90	103	—	93
Paisley	90	97	96	104	109	103	97	—	105
Perth	76	103	98	94	102	—	—	—	93
Ireland:									
Belfast	61	101	93	104	90	103	103	102	97
Cork	66	95	89	97	91	96	113	—	93
Dublin	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Limerick	69	96	91	90	76	—	—	—	83
Londonderry	54	97	88	90	72	—	—	—	83
Waterford	53	92	84	84	73	—	—	—	—

COST OF LIVING IN GERMANY.

HOW THE COST COMPARES WITH ENGLAND AND WALES.

Here are some facts from the Board of Trade Report of "an inquiry into working-class rents, housing and retail prices, together with the rates of wages in certain occupations in the principal industrial towns of the German Empire, with an introductory memorandum and a comparison of conditions in Germany and the United Kingdom" (Cd. 4,032).

Twenty-three representative German towns were investigated, and to make the statistics comparable with the United Kingdom inquiry, the material relates in the main to the same date, October, 1905. To get at the figures some 5,000 working-class budgets were obtained.

Any precise statistical comparison of cost of living in Germany and England is by no means a simple matter (says Sir H. Llewellyn Smith in the introduction). Even when all the difficulties of maintaining the same standard of investigation throughout have been successfully overcome, there remains a difficulty inherent in the nature of things arising from the different habits and modes of living in the two countries. The point is well illustrated by the interesting result obtained fom the present investigation that an English workman migrating to Germany, and maintaining, so far as possible, his own standard of living, would find the cost of rent, food, and fuel **raised by about one-fifth,** while the **German workman who migrated to England,** but retained his own habits of living, would find his expenditure on the same items **reduced by less than one half that amount.** While attention is called in the report to this essential ambiguity in international comparisons, the subject is naturally treated for the most part in the present report from the point of view of the English workman.

The general result of the comparison is to show that in German towns, the workmen engaged in certain standard trades receive about 17 per cent. less in money wages in return for a week's work of about 10 per cent. longer duration than the corresponding English workmen. In other words, their hourly rate of money remuneration is about three-quarters of the corresponding English rate, while the cost of food, rent, and fuel (measured by the English standard) is about one-fifth higher.

Between the United Kingdom and Germany the differences in some respects are very marked (adds Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox). The prevalent type of working-class housing in England and Wales, and to a lesser degree in Ireland, **is a self-contained two-storeyed dwelling, possessing generally four or five rooms** and a separate scullery; **in Germany** the predominant type **is a flat of two or three rooms with appurtenances,** in a large tenement house. **The German housing system thus approximates more closely to the Scottish type—blocks of flats of two, three, or four storeys—than to the English. English, but not Scotch, rents of working-class dwellings usually include local taxation, which is based on the rentable value** of the dwelling; **in Germany local taxation** is levied on an entirely different basis, **and is not** included in rent.

In regard to food **the British workman's meat consists mainly of beef and mutton, whilst pork (even including bacon) is relatively small** in amount; **the German workman, on the other** hand, eats chiefly **pork (including sausage)** and beef, and only a very little mutton. **The** pure wheat bread eaten by **the working classes** of the United Kingdom **is replaced in Germany** either by pure rye bread, **or more commonly** by some mixture of rye and wheat.

International comparisons can be **made by** these means, and the results obtained **are of** great interest and value. There is little, **if any,** difference between the general levels of **rent in** Germany and England, though rents in England include a considerable element of local taxation, whilst rents in Germany do not; **and that** rents in Berlin exceed those of **all the other** German towns investigated **(except Stuttgart)** to practically the same extent as **rents in** London exceed those which prevail **in other** towns of the United Kingdom.

The range of town price-levels in Germany, as in the United Kingdom, **is not very great,** though somewhat wider **in the case of the** German towns, **with the result that the** differences between **the cost of living (so far** as it relates to expenditure on rent, **food, and** fuel) **in one or other of the German towns investigated are not very much larger than** those which exist between **the towns of the** United Kingdom. **The general level of prices** is, however, **distinctly higher in Germany than** in the United Kingdom, **and in this connexion** an important instance **of the effects of differences in national habits may be noticed. The** English **workman going to Germany and maintaining his accustomed standard of living** would **find his expenditure on food and fuel substantially increased; but in spite of the generally higher level of prices in Germany,** the German workman coming to England, **and maintaining his own standard, would not find his expenditure reduced in a corresponding proportion.** This is due mainly **to the fact that the German workman takes much more than**

PREDOMINANT RANGE OF WEEKLY RENTS IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND GERMANY.

No. of Rooms per Tenement.	Predominant Range of Weekly Rents in England and Wales.	Predominant Range of Weekly Rents in Germany.	Ratio of Mean Predominant Rent in Germany to that in England and Wales, taken as 100.
Two rooms	3s. to 3s. 6d.	2s. 8d. to 3s. 6d.	95
Three rooms	3s. 9d. „ 4s. 6d.	3s. 6d. „ 4s. 9d.	100
Four rooms	4s. 6d. „ 5s. 6d.	4s. 3d. „ 6s.	102·5

the English workman of certain food commodities, chiefly potatoes and milk, which are cheaper in German than in English towns.

Whilst nominal rents are as high in Germany as in England—and, in fact, higher, since they do not include local taxation, which the German workman must pay separately—and whilst the general level of food prices in the German towns is also higher than in England, wages in those trades for which a comparison has been made are substantially lower, even when longer hours are worked.

We give the figures from the Report concerning (1) Rents, (2) Prices and Budgets, (3) Hours and Wages.

RENTS.

A comparison of rents in England and Wales

about one quarter more than the workman in an English town for the same number of rooms, exclusive in both cases of local taxation."

PRICES AND BUDGETS.

Certain difficulties in comparing English and German prices are indicated. The German drinks coffee, not tea; he eats grey bread, not white; he consumes practically no mutton, and a good deal of pork. German meat is in general sold without bone and without fat, while bacon is chiefly sold as pure fat for cooking purposes, and the typical German Lemberg cheese is unknown in England. Neglecting such minor differences, the predominant prices paid by the working-classes of the two countries for commodities quoted in both were as follows:

PREDOMINANT RETAIL PRICES IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND GERMANY.

Commodities, October, 1905.		Predominant Prices in October, 1905. England and Wales.	Predominant Prices in October, 1905. Germany.	Ratio of Mean Predominant Price in Germany to Mean Predominant Price in England, taken as 100.
Sugar, white granulated	per lb.		2¼d., 2½d.	119
Butter	„	1s. 1½d.	1s. 1d. to 1s. 2¾d.	105
Potatoes	per 7 lb.	2½d. to 3½d.	2½d. „ 3d.	88
Flour, wheaten	..	8d. „ 10d.	11½d. „ 1s. 1¾d.	140
Milk	per qt.	3d. „ 4d.	2½d., 2¾d.	75
Beef	per lb.	7½d. „ 8½d. 5d. „ 6d.	7¾d. to 8¾d.	122
Mutton		7½d. „ 9d. 4d. „ 5d.	7¾d. 9¾d.	137
Pork		7½d. „ 8½d.	8¾d. 11d.	123
Bacon		7d. „ 9d.	8¾d. 11d.	123
Coal	per cwt	9½d. „ 1s.	10¾d. 1s. 4d.	124
Paraffin oil ..	per gal.	7d. .. 8d.	9½d. 11d.	

and Germany shows the result in the table the bottom of previous page.

Rent in Various German Towns.—Here is a statement of the comparative cost of rents in certain German towns, taking Berlin at the index number of 100:

Berlin	100	Dortmund	68
Stuttgart	97	Mannheim	66
Düsseldorf	79	Essen	63
Hamburg	70	Königsberg ..	62
Aschaffenburg ..	69	Munich	62

Rents and Rates.—There is a difference of method in paying rates in the United Kingdom and Germany. Here the rates are for the most part paid in the rent by working people. In Germany, however, "local taxation is paid by means of an addition to the State income-tax, and consequently the workman in Germany who has paid his rent has nevertheless still to pay taxes." The Report works out an estimate of how this affects a comparison of rents, and concludes that "**local rates, less the water rate, may be taken as forming some 18 per cent. of the rent paid for working-class tenements in the industrial towns of England and Wales.** If this deduction is made from **English** rents so as to render them more **comparable** with the German figures, we find **that** German rents (apart from local taxation) **bear to English rents (apart from the portion that has to be allocated by the landlord to local taxation) the ratio of 101 to 82, or 123 to 100. In other words, the workman in a German town pays for housing accommodation**

Cost of the average British working-man's budget (excluding tea and coffee) at the predominant prices paid by the working-classes of (1) England and Wales, (2) Germany, in October, 1905:

Commodity.	Quantity in average British Budget.	Cost in pence. England and Wales.	Cost in pence. Germany.
Sugar	5¼ lb.	10¾	12¾
Bacon	1½ „	12	14¾
Cheese	0¾ „	5¼	4¼
Butter	2 „	26½	27¾
Potatoes ..	17 „	7¼	6¼
Flour (wheaten)	10 „	12¾	18
Bread (wheaten, England)		27½	—
Equivalent wheaten flour in Germany		—	39¾
Milk	5 qts.	17½	13¼
Beef	4½ lb.	30½	37
Pork	0½ „	4	5
Mutton	1¼ „	9½	13¾
Coal	2 cwt.	21½	20¾
Total cost of above		185	218¾
Index Number ..	—	100	118.

COST FOR GERMANS LIVING IN LONDON.

If we take the arithmetic mean of the numbers in first table on preceding page as a rough index to the relative price-levels of the two countries, for commodities common to both, it is 117 for Germany, as compared with 100 in England.

It does not follow, however, that this ratio fairly represents the relative prices paid in the two countries for the necessaries of existence. In the Report on the United Kingdom, the price-levels of different towns were compared by the amount required to purchase the groceries, meat and coal in an approximate average working-man's budget. It seems fair to apply the same principle to the present case, and to ask, if the average British working-man went to live in Germany, and tried to live there as nearly as possible in the same way as he had previously lived in England, purchasing the same food in the same quantities, how much more would he have to pay? An attempt has been made to answer this question in the comparative budgets on previous page.

The answer obtained in this way is that the English working-man would have to spend nearly 219 pence in Germany in order to purchase the same goods that he could have bought for 185 pence in England; or in other words, he would have to increase his expenditure in the ratio of 100 to 118.

The average German working-man coming to England would not find his expenditure on food, &c., reduced in anything like so high a ratio as 118 : 100 if he retained his accustomed habits. For he purchases, to take only two items that affect the question, 26 lbs. of potatoes against the Englishman's 17 lbs., and 6½ quarts of milk against the Englishman's 5 quarts; and both potatoes and milk are dearer in this country than in Germany. Using, in fact, the approximate quantities of the average German budget, as employed for the comparison of the price-levels in German towns, we obtain the figures of the table at the top of next column:

Cost of the average German working-man's budget (excluding tea and coffee) at the predominant prices paid by the working-classes of (1) England and Wales, (2) Germany, in October, 1905:

Commodity.	Quantity in Average German Budget.	Cost in Pence. England and Wales.	Cost in Pence. Germany.
Sugar	2 lb.	4	4¾
Bacon	0¾ "	6	7½
Cheese	0½ "	3½	3
Butter	1¼ "	16½	17¼
Potatoes	26 "	11¼	9¾
Flour (wheaten) ..	2 "	2¼	3¾
Bread (wheaten, in England).	25 "	31½	—
Bread (wheat and rye in Germany).	25 "	—	35¼
Milk	6½ qts.	22¾	17
Beef	2⅕ lb.	14½	18¼
Pork	1⅗ "	12¾	15⅝
Coal	1¼ cwt.	16	20
Total cost of above	—	141¼	152
Index number ..	—	100	108

The average German emigrant to England would accordingly only decrease his expenditure in approximately the ratio of 108 : 100.

SUMMARY.

Summarising (the report says) it has been found that, as regards rents:

Net rents of working-class dwellings in Germany are to gross rents (including rates) of working-class dwellings in England as 101 to 100.

Net rents of working-class dwellings in Germany are to net rents of working-class dwellings in England (excluding that portion of

PREDOMINANT WEEKLY WAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND IN GERMANY.

Trade.	Predominant Range of Weekly Wages at October, 1905, in England and Wales.	Germany.	Ratio of Mean Predominant Wage in Germany to Mean Predominant Wage in England, taken as 100.
Building Trades:			
Bricklayers	37s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	26s. 11d. to 31s. 3d.	75
Masons	37s. 2d. " 39s. 4d.	(as above)	
Carpenters	36s. 2d. " 39s. 4d.	26s. 11d. " 31s. 3d.	77
Plumbers	35s. 4d. " 39s. 9d.	24s. to 28s. 6d.	70
Painters	31s. 6d. " 37s. 6d.	24s. " 29s. 8d.	78
Labourers	23s. 6d. " 27s.	19s. 6d. to 24s.	86
Engineering Trades:			
Fitters	32s. to 36s.	26s. to 32s.	85
Turners	32s. " 36s.	27s. " 33s.	88
Smiths	32s. " 36s.	28s. 6d. to 33s.	90
Patternmakers	34s. " 38s.	25s. 6d. " 30s.	77
Labourers	18s. " 22s.	18s. to 22s.	100
Printing Trade:			
Compositors	28s. " 33s.	24s. 9d. to 25s. 11d.	83
All the above trades (average)	—	—	83

English rents representing local taxation) as 123 to 100.

As regards prices :

On the basis of the ordinary English standard of consumption the expenditure of the workman on food and fuel in Germany is to his expenditure in England as 118 to 100.

If the expenditure on rent be combined with that on food and fuel, the expenditure on the latter items being taken, with sufficient accuracy for present purposes, at four times the former, the results are :

The expenditure on food, fuel and rent of the workman in Germany, on the same basis as above, would be to that of the same workman in England, on the same items but including local taxation, as 115 to 100.

The expenditure on food, fuel and rent of the workman in Germany would be to that of the same workman in England on the same items, exclusive of local taxation, as 119 to 100.

It appears, therefore, that an English workman in Germany, and living so far as possible as he had been accustomed to live in England, would find his expenditure on rent (exclusive of local taxation), food and fuel increased by some 19 per cent. (or roughly, by one-fifth).

As regards **wages and hours of labour :**

Weekly money wages of the working-classes in German towns are to weekly wages of the same classes in England, in the trades selected for comparison, as 83 to 100.

Average usual working hours per week of the working-classes in German towns are to those of the same classes in England, in the trades selected for comparison, as 111 to 100.

Consequently the hourly rates of money wages for the working-classes in German towns are to those of the same classes in England, for the trades selected for comparison, as 75 to 100.

Thus on the above basis the German rate of money wages per hour is about three-quarters of the English rate, and the cost of rent, food and fuel nearly one-fifth greater than in England.

AVERAGE USUAL HOURS OF LABOUR PER WEEK IN ENGLAND AND WALES AND GERMANY.

Trade.	Average usual hours of labour per week in		Ratio of average hours of labour in Germany to those in England taken as 100.
	England and Wales.	Germany.	
Building Trades :			
Bricklayers and Masons.	52½	59	112
Carpenters	53	59	111
Plumbers	53½	58	108
Painters	53½	59	110
Labourers	52½	59	112
Engineering Trades :			
Fitters	53	59½	112
Turners	53	59½	112
Smiths	53	59½	112
Patternmakers ..	53	59½	112
Labourers	53	59½	112
Printing Trade :			
Compositors ..	52½	54	103
All the above trades (average).	—	—	111

LOTTERIES.

A Joint Committee of the Lords and Commons, of which Lord Beauchamp was Chairman, has inquired into the law (1) as to lotteries, including the sale of lottery bonds, competitions for prizes which involve an element of chance, and advertisements relating thereto ; (2) as to indecent literature and pictures and advertisements relating to things indecent and immoral.

As to lotteries, the Committee have come to the following conclusions :

They consider that no good purpose is served by the multiplication in newspapers and periodicals of prize competitions on subjects of little or no literary, artistic or scientific interest, and in which the element of chance must almost inevitably enter. They believe that prize competitions of this character encourage a spirit of gambling and speculation.

It was suggested to the Committee that the evil could be suppressed if competitions were declared illegal to which entrance was obtained by means of coupons.

They consider that the only effectual way to check this kind of prize competition is to strike at the root of the evil. They recommend, therefore, that it should be made illegal for any proprietor, publisher or editor of any newspaper or periodical to charge any form of entrance fee, including the purchase and return of coupons, for prize competitions in his paper.

LONDON'S CHARITY.

"There are at present in London," said Lord Avebury, "**1,700 to 1,800 charitable institutions and agencies, which included the relief centres of religious bodies, dispensing funds which amounted to more than £10,000,000 per annum in the aggregate.** The work of these institutions was done, as a rule, in isolation. Each spent its income without relation to its neighbours, and guided its policy solely with a view to its own condition.

"It was intended that an association should be composed of subscribers to charities, and its members would possess the most direct interest possible to further the usefulness of the charities to which they subscribed. It was believed that by co-operation, by the utilisation of the experience acquired, and by the prevention of overlapping, the funds devoted to charity might be rendered even more effective than was now the case."

An **Association of Charities** has therefore been formed "to promote systematised co-operation between the co-ordination of the charities of London with a view to the establishment of uniform principles in the administration of relief of distress in the metropolis ; (b) to promote systematic interchange of information between metropolitan charities to prevent overlapping and the waste of resources ; (c) to strengthen the financial position of metropolitan charities.

HOW TO FEED A FAMILY ON 12s. 9d.

SUFFICIENT NOURISHMENT FOR A FAMILY OF FIVE.

"How to Feed a Family of Five on 12s. 9d. a Week" is the subject of a **valuable food chart,** issued by the York Health and Housing Reform Association, which has already issued a chart on "How to Spend a Shilling on Food to the Best Advantage."

The new chart declares that **it attempts to show how the cheapest food may be served to make a variety of meals for a week.** The family is supposed to consist of a father doing fairly hard work, a mother and three children (ages about 11, 8, and 5). The cost has been kept down to 12s. 9d. a week.

The dietary described will supply just sufficient nourishment to keep a family of five in full health. No special merit is claimed for this scheme of meals; it simply shows how a few extremely cheap kinds of nourishing food may be varied to produce seven different dinners, together with some variety in breakfasts and suppers. Before studying the dietary, note the following points:

(a) **The cheaper cuts of meat,** which may be stewed, are just as nourishing and digestible and more economical than chops and steaks and other expensive cuts used for frying and roasting. Frying is the most expensive means of cooking.

(b) **Good roast beef dripping,** especially if taken with a little pepper or salt, is more appetising and much more wholesome than bad butter.

(c) None of the **fancy breakfast foods** are more nourishing than ordinary oatmeal. Their one advantage is to reduce the time of cooking.

(d) **Peas, beans, and lentils** are only digestible when they have been well soaked and well cooked.

(e) **Foods which are cheap during a short season** are not included in this dietary, but special importance is attached to eggs and to cheap fruit. Stewed rhubarb, figs, &c., should be used as well as fresh fruit when available.

(f) **For young children it is all-important to supply a good breakfast.** Plenty of food should be given also at midday in preference to supper.

(g) **Tea and coffee** have no feeding value whatsoever. Their use is justified by their stimulating action, and also as a means of drinking milk and sugar in a palatable form. Much indigestion is caused by strong, overbrewed tea.

The costs as set out were reckoned the autumn of 1907, and do not allow for the exceptional prices ruling in 1908. To keep to the low figure of 12s. 9d. it has proved necessary to sacrifice many of the best and more appetising foods and to replace them by cheaper substitutes, thus whole milk is replaced by skim milk and dripping; butter by dripping, &c., &c.

To those who can afford to spend even an extra sixpence or shilling a week this diet may be made more interesting. The thoughtful housewife, taking this table as a starting point, may ring many changes on it without reducing its feeding value.

The amount and cost of food in the dietary set out is as follows:

	s.	d.
2¼ lb. oatmeal at 2d.	0	
16 „ flour at 1s. 4d. stone	1	
5 „ wheaten flour at 1s. 6d. stone	0	
1½ „ treacle at 2d.	0	
6 oz. jam at 4½d. lb.	0	
3 lb. sugar at 2d.	0	
14 „ potatoes at ½d.	0	
2 turnips and 4 carrots	0	
¾ lb. barley, 1½d.; ½ lb. rice, ½d.; 12 oz. lentils, 2d.; 1 lb. green peas, 2½d.		6½
3¼ lb. onions at 1d.		3¼
¼ „ figs at 3d.		0¾
½ „ currants at 4d.		2
8 oz. tea at 1s. 3d.		7½
6 „ cocoa essence at 10d. lb.		3¾
5 lb. meat—liver, 5d., shin of beef, 6d.; breast of mutton, 4½d.; scrag end of mutton, 6d.; scrap beef, 4½d.		2
1 lb. tripe at 6d. lb.		6
½ „ bacon at 7d.		3½
½ „ cheese at 6d.		3
8 quarts skim milk at 1½d.		0
11 herrings at 9d. doz.		8¼
2 lb. 15 oz. dripping at 5d.		2¾
Sundries—baking-powder, ginger, herbs, yeast, salt, pepper, &c.		4½
Bones		
Total	12	9

This figure is based upon the amount estimated with great care by B. S. Rowntree, in his work on "Poverty," to be the lowest cost of a diet which will keep such a family in full vigour. The most liberal dietary that has been widely accepted is that of Professor Atwater. **He demands for a man of average weight,** doing moderately hard work, sufficient food to supply protein, 4½ oz.; fat, 4½ oz.; sugar and starch, 16 oz. The amounts of the fat, sugar, and starch may be varied so long as the total "energy value" of the food remains the same.

For women and for children of various ages he also gives standard dietaries. By protein we mean that part of food which can form new blood, repair waste tissue, and replace worn-out muscle. White of egg, milk curd, the fibre of flesh, and the glutinous part of flour are a few kinds of protein. By the energy value of a food we mean the amount of heat and of energy developed in the body during the digestion and absorption of that food.

This food chart No. 2 is published by the York Health and Housing Reform Association. Copies may be obtained from Miss Hutchinson, 3A, Bootham, York, at 4s. per 100, or 40s. per 1,000, carriage paid.

SCOTCH TOBACCO.

The Inland Revenue is empowered by an Act passed in 1908 to grant licences for the growing of tobacco in Scotland on land approved for the purpose, and an Excise duty is to be paid on the tobacco.

OLD AGE PENSIONS.

HOW THEY MAY BE OBTAINED.

The Old Age Pensions Act was passed in 1908. It was read a third time on July 9th, by 315 to 10 votes, majority, 305.

Mr. Philip Snowden, M.P., thus defined its scope: "We are dealing as a first instalment with the problem of 572,000 old people poverty-stricken but too proud to seek the charity of the Poor Law."

The Act comes into force on January 1st, 1909.

PENSION ALLOWANCES.

Old Age Pensions are to be paid to all persons of seventy and over who have been British subjects for twenty years, and have resided for that time in the United Kingdom, unless for any reason they are disqualified. The amount of the pension is as follows:

Yearly income of pensioner from all sources.	Equivalent to weekly income of	Pension per week.
Not more than £21.	Not more than 8s.	5s.
£21 0 0 to £23 12 6	8s. to 9s.	4s.
£23 12 6 to £26 5 0	9s. to 10s.	3s.
£26 5 0 to £28 17 6	10s. to 11s.	2s.
£28 17 6 to £31 10 0	11s. to 12s.	1s.
Over £31 10 0	Over 12s.	No pension

QUALIFICATIONS.

The pensioner must:

(a) **Not** have means exceeding £31 10s. a year.

(b) **Not** be in receipt of poor relief or have received poor relief since January 1st, 1908.

"Poor Relief" here does not include:

(1) **Medical or surgical assistance** (including **food or comfort**) **supplied on the recommendation of a medical officer.**

(2) **Maintenance of a dependent in a lunatic asylum, infirmary or hospital,** or payment of **dependent's funeral expenses:** and

(3) **Any relief** by law declared not to disqualify for the parliamentary vote.

(c) **Not have, before becoming entitled to a pension, habitually failed to work according to his ability, opportunity and need, for the maintenance of himself and those legally dependent upon him.**

But a person is not to be so disqualified if he has continuously by means of payments to **friendly, provident,** or other **societies, or trade unions, or other approved steps, made such provision against old age, sickness, infirmity, or want or loss of employment as may be recognised as proper provision for the purpose by regulations under the Act. Any such provision, when made by the husband in the case of a married couple living together, is as respects any right of the wife to a pension to be treated as provision made by the wife as well as by the husband.**

(d) **Not be a lunatic.**

(e) **Not be disqualified as the result of having been convicted of an offence involving imprisonment without the option of a fine.**

When a person before or after the passing of this Act is imprisoned without the option of a fine, the disqualification is to last for the time he or she is in prison and a further period of ten years. If the person is aged 60 or over, the Court (save in cases where an order for detention can be made under the Inebriates Act, 1898), may, if it thinks fit, impose a period of disqualification, not to exceed ten years.

In ascertaining the yearly income of an applicant, all his or her sources of income must be taken into account, the prospective income being (if not otherwise ascertainable) the income actually received during the previous year. In the case of a married couple, the means of either shall not be less that half their total income.

METHODS OF PROCEDURE.

Forms of applications for pensions **must be** obtained at the Post Offices. These have to be filled in and handed into the Post Office again. **Pensions will also be payable at the Post Offices. The whole cost of pensions and administration** is to come from the taxes, and will amount to between **six and eight millions.**

Applicants for pensions can make **claims** four months before they attain the age of seventy.

From the Post Office the applications are sent to the **Pension Officer,** who is appointed by the Treasury, and who must be an Excise officer. When he has inquired into the application, he reports to the **Local Pension Committee,** who decides whether pensions shall be granted or no.

The Local Pension Committees are to be appointed by the **County Councils. In England,** by the Borough and Urban **Councils in** districts of 20,000 and over; in **Scotland,** by the Burgh Council in the case of Royal or Parliamentary or Police Burghs; **in Ireland,** by the Borough and Urban **District Councils in** districts of 10,000 and over.

It is not necessary for the members of these committees to be members of the Appointing Council. Committes may appoint sub-committees and delegate powers.

If a person is refused, the applicant in person, or the Pension Officer, can appeal to the Central Pension Authority (the Local Government Board) against the decision.

The appeal has to be made in duplicate, on a blue form to the Local Government Board, and on a yellow one to the Committee. The Committee will then send all the papers to the Local Government Board, who will make the final decision. All **appeals must be made within seven days after the Committee's refusal.**

MR. BALFOUR AND THE PENSIONS BILL.

Mr. Balfour, speaking on the Pensions Bill, said:

"**I look forward, and not I alone, with much misgiving to the method by which the Government are attempting to carry out the objects of this Bill.** With those objects I heartily **sympathise. As far as I am concerned, I frankly admit I rejoice in a policy of old age pensions, but I should like to have seen that** most difficult **of all social problems** dealt with in a manner by which alone a satisfactory result will ensue. **I should like to have seen a serious attempt to produce some scheme by which all these investigations might be avoided, and we might be**

able to give a pension as of course, or have, what I should much prefer, some **contributory scheme.**

"I do not think we ought to be too hasty to give up such a scheme as impracticable. Such a scheme would, at all events, have two plain and manifest advantages—it would avoid inquisitorial investigation, and it would get over the other difficulties which have been alluded to at less cost to the Exchequer. And that means that more money would be left free for the necessary purposes of national defence or other great purposes of social reform. I regret the hasty course which the Government has taken, but the responsibility must lie with them.

"The Government alone have the opportunity of estimating the resources at their disposal for carrying it out. They, and they alone, have the machinery for making some comparative survey of all the needs of the State. On them lies the responsibility. The Bill does not satisfy the demands of those who claim the right to old age pensions, and, on the other hand, it so burdens and cripples the national resources that we may find it impossible to meet other obligations not less pressing, not less connected with the safety of the State and the well-being of the poorer members of the State."

Mr. C. G. Masterman, Under Secretary to the Local Government Board, said:

"He knew it **would relieve an anxiety which was passing from an obsession into a terror for those who, in the heart of our civilisation, were walking in the shadow of death**; that in thousands of humble homes it would remove the desperate and cruel choice of the wage-earner between the needs of the parent on the one hand, and the needs of the child on the other; and that it would give old men and women a new self-respect, a new hope, and a new determination pursued in the knowledge that they were bringing to the family exchequer at least as much as they were receiving from it. Moreover, the Bill **would enlarge the spending power of the poorer classes,** and that **would result in** one very desirable and immediate effect—the limitation of unemployment, for the enlarged demand for fuel, food, and shelter would produce an enlarged demand for the labour required in the supply of those commodities."

Lord Cromer, criticising the Bill, said: "When the burden of the fresh taxation which is inevitable, begins to be felt, and when in times of national emergency all patriotic men cry out for these lost millions, let it be known, at all events, on whom rests the true responsibility for the creation of so sombre a situation, and for the introduction of the financial revolution—for such it really is—which will be inaugurated by this Bill."

Lord St. Aldwyn admitted that "**it would be a great boon to many poor and deserving persons** that they should receive pensions under the Bill, He believed there was a very strong feeling in the country in favour of legislation of the kind. He did not see how it was possible to bring it about by a contributory system; and, therefore, as far as the Bill was concerned, he was not prepared with any competing measure."

Lord Rosebery said: "Surely the moment is ill-chosen for undertaking this vague experiment, so prodigal of expenditure, and I would ask the Government . . . to meet some of the points raised in this debate, and to assure us that in furthering and not opposing this boon which they offer to the old of the United Kingdom, we are not dealing a blow at the Empire which may be almost mortal, and that we are not embarrassing and encumbering our finances to a degree to which no man now living, however young he may be, will see the limit or the end."

While **Lord Avebury** said: "The Bill would involve an immense increase of taxation, perpetuate poverty, lower wages, and discourage thrift."

COST OF OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

The cost of old-age pensions in **Belgium,** Germany, and New Zealand is given in the "Financial Review of Reviews" by Sir W. Chance, thus:

Belgium:		1900.	1906.
Total premiums received		Francs.	Francs.
from the State		1,497,000	4,700,000
Germany:		1891.	1904.
Government contribution to pensions ..		Marks.	Marks.
		6,040,000	45,370,000
New Zealand	1899.	1906.	1908.
Payment by the			Estimated.
State	£127,319	£199,081	£235,000

In the course of the debate on the Second Reading of the **New Zealand Old-Age Pensions Amendment Bill, October, 1908,** which makes the conditions of obtaining pensions better and easier for the recipient, the Prime Minister said that he estimated the probable liabilities under the Bill, assuming that 32 per cent. of the eligible population claimed the full allowance of £26, as follows: In 1909 pensions to 13,500 persons, of the value of £351,000; in 1911 to 14,000, of the value of £365,000; and in 1913 to 14,400, of the value of £374,000.

The cost of the Chaplin scheme limited to the deserving aged poor (5s. to 7s. a week pension) **was** estimated to rise from £8,029,000 in England and Wales and from £10,780,000 in the United Kingdom (1907) to £9,219,000 **and** £12,004,000 in 1921 respectively, assuming the age limit to be 65. And on the same assumption the cost of **Mr Charles Booth's universal pension scheme** (5s. a week pension) for the United Kingdom was estimated to **rise** from £27,508,000 in 1907 to £30,632,000 **in** 1921, excluding the cost of administration.

The cost of the Government scheme which comes into operation on January 1st, 1909, will be about £7,000,000.

The number of applications for old-age pensions received up to October 24th, 1908, and the ratio per 10,000 of estimated population on June 30th last are as follows:

Country.	Number of applications received.	Ratio per 10,000 of population
England (excluding Monmouthshire)	320,042	97
Wales (including Monmouthshire)	20,227	91
Scotland	59,244	123
Ireland	162,658	373
Total	562,171	126

In London 34,047 applications, or 71 per 10,000, were made to the same date.

MORE PENSIONS FORESHADOWED.

CONTRIBUTORY SCHEME FOR SICKNESS AND INVALIDITY.

Another pension scheme may be expected shortly—one of a contributory character. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has not hesitated to hint that he hopes to frame a scheme which will secure a pension for the sick worker and for those who are invalided before they reach seventy. To such a scheme workers and employers would have to contribute, as is the case in Germany.

Indeed, the Chancellor of the Exchequer's visit to Germany last August was undertaken mainly with the object of finding out whether any of the principles of the German pension system could be applied to this country.

Mr. Lloyd-George admitted on his return that he had come back profoundly impressed with Germany's methods. Many of his inquiries were specially directed towards ascertaining how far the German methods in respect to sickness and invalidity could be adopted in this country.

For, after all, **old age pensions form but a comparatively small part of the German system.** Does the German workman fall ill? State insurance comes to his aid. Is he permanently invalided from work? Again, he gets a regular grant, whether he has reached the pension age or not.

All workers employed at wages below £2 a week must be insured against sickness in Germany. The employers must pay one-third of the total contributions. The State insists on a minimum benefit comprising free medical attendance and supplies. In addition, **sick pay has to be allowed to the extent of half the wages for a period of twenty-six weeks. If the incapacity continues, the liability is transferred from the sickness fund to the accident fund.**

The accident fund in Germany is one of a far-reaching character, since the State has effectually insured its workers against invalidity. To this accident fund the workers make no contribution. **The whole liability falls upon the employer.** A life pension must be paid even though the accident be due to a man's or a woman's own negligence. **The amount of the pension is equal to two-thirds of the wages the worker was earning.** The Imperial Insurance Board and the [illegible] ance Boards exercise supreme control over the local committees which carry carry out this part of the German pension system. The full invalidity pension—that is, two-thirds of the former wages—must be paid for life where an accident renders a person permanently unfit for work.

Mr. Lloyd-George was impressed with the fact that **the pensions for sickness and invalidity in Germany had had a good effect upon employers and workers.** Being obligatory upon good and bad employers alike, the system prevents an unscrupulous firm from undercutting another by reason of what the other might spend on benefits. Then, again, the **trade unions had been quickened to supplement the sick or invalidity pensions** by grants of their own.

Several of the trade union leaders told Mr. Lloyd-George that they proposed to do in future by means of the State sick fund much more than look after their comrades when ill. They hoped **to spread information by means of classes and lectures and literature as to the character and nature of disease,** and as to the best methods of preventing it.

"The surprising thing," says the Chancellor of the Exchequer, "is that all this elaborate and wonderful machinery for insuring the workers against sickness, invalidity, and old age, in Germany **only costs the State two and a half million pounds a year.** The Minister of the Interior kindly furnished me with detailed returns as to the cost. Practically the **State only contributes the cost of administration.** These two and a half millions are supplemented by about thirty-one and a half millions contributed by employers and workmen.

"I was informed that the State proposes shortly to bring into the pension scheme **clerks and members of the smaller professions,** as well as widows and orphans. Under this widened scheme the total cost will be enlarged to about fifty-three millions. The State proposes to double its contribution by voting five millions."

The scheme for paying pensions to widows and orphans in Germany has already passed the Reichstag. The State's contribution to these pensions is to be defrayed out of the Customs duties on corn and cattle. The total cost of these pensions, including what is paid by those who are to benefit, is estimated at £5,000,000.

In order to pay **pensions to clerks and members of the smaller professions** an additional sum of £12,000,000 will have to be raised on the contributory principle.

Whatever contributory scheme the Chancellor of the Exchequer may seek to introduce into this country, he has made it clear that he will not alter the present system of non-contributary pensions to all poor people over seventy. **His desire is to confine the principle of contributory pensions to people invalided before they reach the age entitling them to a free pension.**

To quote his own words:

"I am still of opinion that people seventy years of age ought to be provided for at the expense of the State, whether they have been able to make contributions or not."

Before drawing up his proposed new scheme the Chancellor of the Exchequer intends to study **the Belgian and Austrian systems of contributory pensions.** Whatever scheme be prepared for this country, it is certain additional revenue will have to be raised, and it is not without significance that Mr. Lloyd-George stated on his return from Germany that he had been inquiring into sources of revenue in that country which are unknown here.

He found that **half the total revenue of Prussia was derived from the State railways,** and that very large sums for the national exchequer were obtained from **mining royalties** and from the **State forests.** His inquiries also were directed towards those German cities that tax unearned increment.

EIGHT HOURS FOR MINERS.

WHAT THE NEW BILL PROPOSES.

A Bill to limit miners' hours below ground was introduced into the House of Commons on February 20th, 1908, by the Home Secretary. Similar Bills have been introduced before. In 1893 the Second Reading was carried by 78; by 87 in 1894; by 13 in 1901. In 1900 the Second Reading was carried without a division. In 1908 the Second Reading was passed by a majority of 270 (July 6th).

Provisions of the Bill.—Here are the main provisions of the Bill:

(1) Subject to the provisions of this Act a workman shall not be below ground in a mine for the purpose of his work, and of going to and from his work, or be allowed to be below ground for that purpose, for more than the time fixed by this section during any consecutive twenty-four hours.

(2) The time fixed by this section is, during the period beginning on the commencement of this Act (January 1st, 1909), and ending on June 30th, 1910, nine hours, and thereafter eight hours.

On not more than 60 days a year **the hours may be extended**, but not by more than one hour a day.

His Majesty may, **in the event of war or of imminent national danger** or great emergency, or in the event of any grave economic disturbance due to the demand for coal exceeding the supply available at the time, by Order in Council suspend the operation of this Act to such extent and for such period as may be named in the Order, either as respects all coal mines or any class of coal mines.

Mr. Herbert Samuel says "that of the 700,000 workers underground three-fourths worked more than eight hours, and many of them worked excessive hours. In Lancashire the ordinary hours of hewers below ground were nine and a half, and of the other workers below ground ten and a half hours. One of the reasons why opposition to this Bill must be regarded as exaggerated was that the opponents never made allowance for the fact that under an eight-hours day the hours of labour would be distributed more equally, because of the fewer holidays that would be taken. The opposition to which he had referred was based on a most excessive estimate of the possible cost of introducing an eight-hours day in mines. The Home Secretary had received deputations (from the Coal Consumers' League) which had represented to him that the passing of an eight-hours Bill would permanently increase the cost of coal from 1s. 6d. to 2s. a ton. That was a fantastic estimate, supported by no argument. It was an absurd exaggeration of the probable or even the possible effect of introducing a Mines (Eight Hours) Bill, and was borne out in no degree by the findings of the committee which examined the economic effect of establishing an eight-hours day. They trusted that they would be able to secure this year for a very large class of men engaged in exceptionally arduous, dangerous, and unattractive labour that larger leisure which they agreed with hon. members who had moved the resolution was one of the first conditions of a satisfactory life."

Mr. Winston Churchill, speaking in support of the Bill, said: "The first economic question which the House has to decide is **whether these mitigations which are enumerated** in the Report of the Departmental Committee **will have the effect of overtaking the reduction which is to follow the curtailment of hours**, or, if not, how far they will fall short in overtaking that reduction. . . . With regard to the employer, there is improved organisation by methods of haulage and winding and other means specified in the report; there is the more extensive application of coal-cutting machinery, and the sinking of new pits with modern appliances, which is progressing in many parts of the country. There is also the system of double and multiple shifts. From the side of labour, mitigations, which may be expected as off-sets to the original reduction, are not less important. There is **the increased efficiency**, of which we have instances actually on record in this report, which has followed from the reduction of hours; there is **the power of the worker if he chooses to increase his earnings on a short day**; there is the **field of absenteeism**, which has always been felt as a reduction of hours, and which amounts to 6·6 of the working time of the men; and there is **the margin of stoppages** through slack trade and other circumstances, which at present aggregates 7 per cent. of the working time in the mines.

"Taking these last two alone, they aggregate 13 per cent., or considerably more as a margin than the reduction of working time which will be caused by the operation of this Bill, even when the full operation is effected. Let the House consider carefully whether from these eight sources of mitigation it is possible to overtake the **10 per cent reduction the Bill proposes.**"

Answering Mr. Bonar Law, Mr. Churchill added: "He has given us a delightful lecture on the importance of **cheapness of production.** Think of the poor consumer. Think of the importance to our industries of cheapness of production. We on this side are great admirers of cheapness of production. We have reminded the hon. gentleman of it often; but why should cheapness of production always be achieved at the expense of the human factor? Has he considered the relation of miners' wages to the selling price of coal?

"**At the pit's mouth the underground workers' wages are only 60 per cent. of the selling price of coal.** Free on board on the Tyne the proportion is only 38 per cent. As coal is sold here in the South of England the proportion is less than one-fifth of the whole price. Is it not clear that there are other factors at least which require consideration before you decide to deal with the human factor? What about mining royalties? In all this talk about the importance of cheap coal to our industries we have had no mention of mining royalties. Yet it is estimated that mining royalties impose a toll of 6 per cent calculated on the price of coal at the pit's mouth."

WAGES AND HOURS.

Towards the end of 1905 rates of wages began to rise, and in 1906 a net weekly advance of £58,000 was recorded in the wages of those affected (says Mr. Wilson Fox, of the Board of Trade). In 1907, this upward movement reached its highest point, the net rise per week being £201,000, an amount only £7,000 lower than that of the record year 1900. The recent upward movement was arrested early in 1908, so that it has lasted a considerably shorter time than either the previous downward movement of 1901–5, or the upward movement of 1896–1900.

The large increase in wages in 1907 was almost entirely due to advances in the coal mining industry, miners in every coalfield having received a net rise in rates of wages. All other groups of trades showed net increases during the year, but, except in the textile group, the amount of the advance was small. **The aggregate recorded advance in industries** other than coal mining was £27,300 per week, and, of this, £11,600 was due to advances in the textile group. Altogether over 1,246,000 workpeople had their rates of wages changed in 1907. Of this number about 1,243,000 received advances amounting to £201,200 per week, and about 3,000 sustained decreases amounting to £200 per week.

Taking into account the various dates at which the changes in 1907 came into operation, **the net increase in the year's wages bill due to the changes in rates of wages** (as distinct from earnings) may be estimated at £5,821,000, compared with an increase of £1,419,000 in 1906, and a decrease of £114,000 in 1905.

The number of workpeople whose changes in rates of wages were preceded by a stoppage of work formed but an insignificant fraction of the whole, being only 1 per cent. The proportion of workpeople whose changes in wages were arranged by conciliation, wages boards, arbitration, &c., was nearly 59 per cent., while nearly 5 per cent. of the workpeople affected had changes which took effect under sliding scales.

The changes in hours of labour recorded in 1907 **affected 36,200 workpeople**, of whom 35,400 had their working hours reduced. Of this latter number, over 14,000 were employed in the building trades, and about 12,100 in the textile trades. The net effect of all the changes was a reduction of about 79,000 hours in the weekly working time of the workpeople affected.

During January and February, 1908, wages in the coal mining industry continued to advance, but in most other trades wages, following the decline in employment, began to fall. Each succeeding month has shown a further fall. Altogether, 851,000 workpeople are reported to have had their wages changed during the first six months of 1908, and the net effect of all the changes during that period has been **a decrease of £16,000 per week.**

SHOP HOURS.

The Shop Hours Bill, to reduce the length of shop hours, was read a second time by 190 to 45 votes on May 1st, and referred to a Committee of the whole House.

Mr. Gladstone said that the existing legislation had practically broken down, and required to be strengthened. But, having regard to the state of the business of the House, it was not possible for this Bill to make progress this Session. If this Bill was committed to a Committee of the whole House, he would undertake to defer it and introduce it next year. The Government were actively friendly to the purpose of the Bill, and if he undertook to bring in a Bill to strengthen the existing law next year, he hoped that course would commend itself to the House.

STRIKES IN 1907.

The number of workpeople involved, directly or indirectly, **in stoppages of work owing to strikes and lock-outs** which began in the year 1907 was comparatively small (147,498), and the aggregate duration of all the disputes in progress during the year—2,162,000 working days—was below that of any year for which the Department has records, except 1904 (says Mr. A. Wilson Fox, of the Board of Trade).

The strikes and lock-outs of the year caused **a loss of working time** amounting to less than a quarter of a day per head of the whole industrial population of the United Kingdom, exclusive of seamen and agricultural labourers, who are not included in the records of disputes kept by the Department. Nearly three-quarters of the time lost in 1907 was due to **disputes in the textile, coal mining, and engineering and shipbuilding industries.**

As usual, **questions of wages were the most frequent causes of disputes.** As compared with the year 1906, however, there was a decline in the proportion of workpeople who struck work to obtain an increase in wages.

The results of the disputes arising in 1907 were in favour of the workpeople so far as concerned 32·6 per cent. of the number directly involved, in favour of the employers so far as concerned 27 per cent., while in the case of 40·1 per cent. the result was a compromise.

Three-fifths in number of the disputes, directly involving 74,000 workpeople, or nearly three-quarters of all those directly involved in the disputes of the year, were **settled by the parties themselves** or their representatives, and 45 disputes, directly involving 13,296 workpeople, were **settled by conciliation or arbitration.**

The various voluntary Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration are known to have considered 1,545 cases in the course of the year, and to have settled 668 of them. These Boards are mainly concerned with the prevention of disputes rather than with their settlement, and in only seven of the cases which came before them did disputes reach the point at which a stoppage of work resulted.

TO SETTLE TRADE DISPUTES.

MR. CHURCHILL'S NEW SCHEME.

Mr. Winston Churchill, as President of the Board of Trade, has instituted a new method of dealing with trade disputes.

"Mr. Churchill has arrived at the conclusion that the machinery hitherto available for this purpose might be so extended and improved as to increase its popularity alike with employers and with the employed; and he hopes to accomplish the improvement by the establishment of **a new tribunal, of either three or five members, to be formed as occasion may arise, from three previously selected panels,**" says "The Times."

"**The first panel** of possible chairmen will be composed of 'persons of eminence and impartiality'; the **second** will be formed of persons drawn from the employer class; and the **third** from the class of workmen and trade unionists. The second and third panels will include a sufficient number of persons to afford reasonable probability of finding two who are of impartial mind in relation to any particular dispute; and Mr. Churchill expresses his belief that a Court of five persons will be more generally acceptable to the workmen than a Court of three only.

"**The procedure to be adopted** is that, in any trade dispute in which both parties agree to accept the award of the proposed tribunal, a special Court for the purpose of hearing and adjudicating upon the case will be formed from the panels described, and will, if necessary, be aided by assessors appointed by the Board of Trade for the single purpose of fully explaining to the Court any special conditions which may exist in the trade concerned. As the personnel of the Court must, from the very nature of its constitution, be constantly varied, it is hoped that the institution as a whole will be in no danger of incurring unpopularity as a consequence of any single decision. The project can be brought into operation as soon as may be required, and no fresh legislation is necessary for the purpose.

"The present proposal is certainly deserving of encouragement, and of as complete a trial as the contending parties in appropriate cases may see fit to extend to it," says the "Times."

"It has the obvious merit of flexibility, of adaptiveness to the varying conditions under which disputes may arise; and it is not too much to assume that, as a rule, both parties to a dispute would be disposed to welcome any machinery for affecting a settlement from which they could both hope for substantial justice, and by which the *amour propre* of both would be preserved from injury.

"The greatest hope of effectual adjudication under the scheme will be afforded, there can be little doubt, in the cases in which the aid of the new Court is early invoked, before there has been time for the cultivation of angry or vindictive feeling on either side; and on this account, as well as in order that the new Court may obtain a fair trial upon its merits, we hope that disputants of weight and importance may be persuaded to have early recourse to the suggested intervention."

The three different panels proposed by Mr. Churchill will consist of the following gentlemen:

Panel of Chairmen: The Duke of Devonshire, Rt. Hon. Viscount Selby, Rt. Hon. Viscount St. Aldwyn, Rt. Hon. Lord Balfour of Burleigh, Rt. Hon. Lord James of Hereford, Rt. Hon. Lord Lochee, Rt. Hon. Lord Macdonnell, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward Fry, Sir John P. Dickson-Poynder, Bart., M.P., Sir Francis J. S. Hopwood, Sir Alfred Bateman, Mr. Ernest Moon, Mr. G. R. Askwith, Mr. A. A. Hudson, and Mr. W. B. Yates.

Panel drawn from Employers: Rt. Hon. Lord Pirrie, the Lord Glantawe, Sir Hugh Bell, Bart., Sir W. T. Lewis, Bart., Sir Charles McLaren, Bart., M.P., Sir S. B. Boulton, Bart., Sir A. Spicer, Bart., M.P., Sir W. Holland, Bart., M.P., Sir F. Forbes Adam, C.I.E., Sir Benjamin Browne, Sir C. Furness, M.P., Mr. T. Ratcliffe Ellis, Mr. C. G. Hyde, M.P., Mr. L. A. Martin, Mr. W. H. Mitchell, Mr. Alexander Siemens, and Mr. Douglas Upton.

Panel drawn from Workpeople: Mr. G. N. Barnes, M.P., Mr. R. Bell, M.P., Mr. C. W. Bowerman, M.P., Mr. W. Brace, M.P., Mr. John Burnett, Rt. Hon. T. Burt, M.P., Mr. Frank Chandler, Mr. W. J. Davis, Mr. James Gavin, Mr. A. H. Gill, M.P., Mr. Arthur Henderson, M.P., Mr. G. D. Kelly, M.P., Mr. J. D. Prior, Mr. E. L. Richardson, Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P., and Mr. T. Smith.

SOLDIERS AND DISTURBANCES.

A Select Committee was appointed in 1908 **to report upon the employment of military in cases of disturbances.**

The Committee reported that the civil authority is responsible for the preservation of peace by means of its police, and that **these should be adequate, so as to make it unnecessary at any time for the civil authority to ask for the aid of the military.** But they are of opinion that the present arrangements are somewhat insufficient. Inducements should be given to police authorities **to provide a mounted force,** and to utilise the services of men with knowledge of cavalry and Yeomanry duties.

They suggested **that the Home Secretary should be empowered, on the application of a chief constable, to requisition from any county police force a proportion not exceeding 10 per cent. of its members, and that the men so requisitioned should be available to be employed in any disturbed district. Also, that chief constables should have the power of enlisting additional men into the county police for temporary purposes.**

The Secretary for War intends **to amend the King's Regulations** so as to make it plain that a military officer is entitled to exercise his discretion in complying with a requisition when he has reason to believe that it has been made without justification.

The Committee suggest that consideration should be given to the question as to what means should be adopted of warning a crowd that the order to fire is about to be given.

CANADA'S TRADE DISPUTES.

HOW THE NEW ACT SETTLES THEM.

Canada, in 1907, passed an Act to enable it to deal with its industrial disputes. For this Act Mr. Mackenzie King, the Deputy Minister for Labour, was largely responsible.

The working of this Act has been investigated by Dr. Victor S. Clark for the United States Bureau of Labour with a view to its adoption by the United States. Dr. Clark is one of the leading authorities in the United States on labour and sociological questions. Here is a summary of his report:

The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada became a law March 22nd, 1907, following several prior Acts—the last a consolidation, made only a year before, of previous statutes—**for the voluntary conciliation, investigation and arbitration of labour difficulties.** The immediate occasion of the new law was a strike of great local interest and public importance in the coal mines of southern Alberta, which the previous autumn had threatened to leave the Prairie provinces without a winter's supply of fuel. Consequently the dominant motive of the act was to prevent strikes that seriously and directly affect the general welfare. The method of the law in such disputes is to prohibit a cessation of industry, under adequate penalties, until the public is officially informed of the grounds of the controversy.

The Act differs from the compulsory arbitration laws of Australasia in that strikes and lock-outs are not prohibited after an investigation of their causes has been made. The power of well-informed public opinion is then relied upon to prevent or shorten such disturbances. Another important difference is that the provisions of **the Canadian law extend only to public utilities**—such as steam and electric railways, power and lighting plants, and similar industries—**and to mines.** Coal mines may, perhaps, be considered as public utilities, but the extension to metal mines is a departure from the leading theory of the law.

Therefore the Act is the logical first step toward government intervention in labour disputes, if a policy of intervention is to be adopted. It recognises the right of the public to continuous service in industries established primarily for the general convenience, like its right to continuous military and police protection, and at the same time it preserves the right of working men and employers to terminate their contracts. It is not, like the compulsory laws of Australasian countries, an attempt to regulate in detail the administration of private business or to control the organisation of labour. Yet in requiring a public investigation of certain disputes before permitting a strike, the law goes beyond previous legislation, which became effective only at the option of the parties, and therefore did not constitute true intervention

The law provides for boards of conciliation and investigation, appointed for each dispute. Each board consists of three members, one selected by the workers, another by the employers, and the third by these two members, or, when they disagree, by the Government.

As the law is intended to prevent, not to prohibit, strikes and lock-outs, and applies to only a limited number of industries, strikes have not ceased entirely in Canada, and occur occasionally even in the industries subject to the Act. Four strikes—two in coal mines, one upon a railway, and one among dock labourers—were begun so soon after the Act went into force that the workers could fairly plead ignorance of its provisions. In all these cases they resumed work after the law was explained. One lock-out in a western coal mine occurred under similar circumstances. The Montreal longshoremen went on strike in disregard of the Act, and the coal miners at Springhill struck after an award had been given. No strikers have been convicted under the penal provisions of the law; but two union officers have been fined for inciting strikes, and one employer has been fined for instituting a lock-out.

From March 22nd, 1907, when the Act went into effect, to January 15th, 1908, **thirty disputes became subject to investigation,** though some were settled before a board was appointed or held hearings. One board has been applied for and rendered its decision since the latter date. Five strikes, begun in ignorance or disregard of the law, and one lockout, were ended pending or after investigation, though not in all cases directly by a board. Out of the remaining twenty-five disputes but two resulted in a strike. Friends of the Act claim further that some disputes that otherwise might have resulted in a strike have been settled without a board, because the parties did not want a public investigation.

It seems, therefore, a fair conclusion that the act has prevented strikes, some of which might have been serious. Opinions differ as to what disputes would have so resulted without the good offices of the boards, and there is no way of deciding this point. But taking the twenty-six disputes that occurred after the provisions of the Act were generally known—and this includes the Montreal dockers' strike—the law of averages leads to the belief that more strikes would have followed had they been left to the usual methods of settlement.

Dr. Clark's conclusions are these:

So far as can be judged from the experience of a single year, the Industrial Disputes Act has accomplished the main purpose for which it was enacted, the prevention of strikes and lock-outs in public service industries. Apparently, it has not affected adversely the condition of working men or of industries where it has been applied. It is much more applicable to American conditions than compulsory arbitration laws, like those of New Zealand and Australia, because its settlements are based on the agreement of the parties and do not prescribe an artificial wage, often badly adjusted to economic conditions.

Employers and the general public in Canada, with a very few exceptions, favour the law. The working people are divided, many of the stronger organisations directly affected by the Act being against it. This opposition is based on two grounds, the general distrust with which working men regard Government intervention in labour matters, and a feeling that they can improve their conditions more through negotiations backed by sudden strikes than by

negotiations backed by deferred strikes, for which the employer may prepare himself in advance. The distrust of Government intervention arises from a feeling that the intervening authority usually has a class bias against labour.

Though chairmen may not see points from exactly the same position as the working man, they often have social sympathies and theories that dispose them to give him, as presumably the weaker party, the benefit of every doubt, and the result perhaps works out the samé as if they saw things from his point of view. Possibly workers do sacrifice something of influence in giving up sudden strikes, but they gain in other ways, especially in having a better alternative to a strike than before. And as part of the general public they profit by the saving of industrial waste through strikes.

But the application of the Act to industries should probably be limited—at least for some time to come—to strictly public service industries as defined by the Canadian statute. Less strain would be placed on the Act now did it not apply to metal mining.

In the United States constitutional restrictions would prevent a Federal law of such wide application as that of Canada. Such legislation is passed only when the memory of a great and recent industrial conflict has profoundly stirred public opinion. The Australasian legislation followed somewhat tardily the Maritime strike of 1890. The Canadian Act was passed shortly after the Lethbridge coal strike. After such a law is once on the statute books however, it usually remains, and in New Zealand, Australia, and Canada it has created a new public attitude toward industrial disputes.

This attitude is the result of the idea—readily grasped and generally accepted when once clearly presented—that the public have an interest in many industrial conflicts quite as immediate and important in its way as that of the conflicting parties. If the American people have this truth vividly brought to their attention by a great strike, the hopeful example of the Canadian Act seems likely, so far as present experience shows, to prove a guiding star in their difficulties.

NEW ZEALAND'S ARBITRATION.

The provisions of the new Compulsory Arbitration Bill introduced by the New Zealand Government (in August, 1908) are given in the "Times" by its correspondent at Wellington. Under the new measure, which is of a most drastic nature, heavy penalties are imposed on strikers, whether they belong to Trade Unions or not, and special penalties are provided for in respect to strikes in certain industries affecting public health or safety. A new departure is also taken in the section providing that any union of workers convicted of aiding, abetting, inciting, or instigating a strike shall have its registration suspended for a period not exceeding three years.

Unions and associations committing a breach of award are to be subjected to a penalty of £100, and workers to one of £5 each, for every such offence. Councils of conciliation, consisting of the local magistrates and two assessors, are to be appointed instead of the old conciliation boards, and above these will be the Court which, on the hearing of any dispute, is to be reinforced by two assessors appointed by the parties to the dispute.

The extra work thrown on the magistracy by the new proposal, it is pointed out, would certainly demand a substantial increase of its numbers. Finally, the unsatisfactory results of the adoption of the minimum wage principle in the old Act have led to a new but permissive provision distinguishing between a "needs" wage and an "exertion" wage.

The Bill, which was referred to the Labour Bills Committee, has been most unfavourably received by Labour representatives, Mr. Rigg, a member of the Upper House, describing it as the most tyrannical measure ever introduced by an English-speaking Parliament. Compulsory arbitration (says the "Spectator") is freely admitted by Liberals to have proved a failure, and further and more drastic State intervention bids fair to aggravate the dissatisfaction already caused by the existing Act.

Mr. D. Shackleton, M.P., as Chairman of the Trade Union Congress, uttered a warning against compulsory arbitration. Compulsion might (he said) carry them further than they wanted to go. Trade Unionists had spent a half-century in securing the removal of restrictions upon their liberty of action; let them be careful now not to reimpose them.

COTTON LOCK-OUT.

The cotton trade employers in September demanded a decrease of 5 per cent. in the operatives' wages, to take place in January, 1909. To this the operatives objected, and a seven weeks' lock-out prevailed.

On November 6th, at a joint meeting, Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P., on behalf of the three operatives' organisations, presented the following statement addressed to Mr. Macara, as President of the Federation:

"In view of the terrible distress now prevailing, largely brought about by the unfortunate stoppage in the cotton industry, and which has been so forcibly brought to our notice at our meetings with the mayors of the Lancashire towns held under the presidency of Alderman Frankenburg, Mayor of Salford, we have decided that, on condition that the employers agree to post-date the 5 per cent. reduction in the cotton operatives' wages from the first pay day in January to the first pay day in March, we will, without any further ballot, instruct and advise our members to return to work as soon as arrangements can be made, but in any case not later than Monday, the 16th inst."

To this the masters agreed, and no change can take place under the Brooklands agreement for twelve months after.

PAWNING TOOLS.

An interesting Bill to prevent the pawning of industrial tools was introduced into the Commons, and supported by several of the Labour Members (Bill 261). It provides that a pawnbroker shall not take in pawn any industrial tool or tools from any person claiming to be the owner thereof unless such person shall deliver a written declaration duly signed by such person in the presence of a householder.

PROGRESS OF TRADE UNIONISM.

The Trade Union Congress met at Nottingham in 1908, under the presidency of Mr. D. Shackleton, M.P. There were present 518 delegates, representing 213 societies and a membership of 1,776,000. Had the Engineers' Society, with its membership of 110,000, and one or two smaller organisations not withdrawn this year, the total membership represented would have been about 1,900,000. When the Congress last visited Nottingham, twenty-five years ago, there were only 163 delegates, representing a membership of 471,651.

The next Congress takes place in Ipswich in 1909, when Mr. Shackleton will again preside.

The Fourth International Report of the Trade Union Movement, published in Berlin by the International Secretary of the Trade Union Central Organisations, shows that in the last year for which statistics are available (1906) the membership of trade unions was as follows: Germany, 2,215,165; England, 2,106,283; Austria, 448,270; Italy, 273,751; Sweden, 200,924; Belgium, 158,116; Hungary, 153,332; the Netherlands, 128,845; Denmark, 98,432; Spain, 32,405; Norway, 25,339; Servia, 5,350; Bulgaria, 5,000. Neither France, Russia, America, nor Australia has furnished reports. Of the total number of 5,851,215 organised workers, 372,920 are females. Organised agricultural workers number 108,891.

The comparatively poor condition of the German workman may be due, to some extent, to the lack of organisation until quite recently. But trade unions within the past three or four years have (says "Engineering") increased greatly. The membership of metal-workers unions has grown 102 per cent., the numbers in the unions in 1904 having been 181,328, and in 1907 they had increased to 361,189. Wood-workers in trade unions numbered 103,034 in 1904, and in 1907 they were 148,869. It is curious that, with all Germany's love of organisation, the development of trade unions is only of quite recent date. As a consequence (continues "Engineering"), comparatively few elderly workmen are to be found in the unions; and as the members are nearly all young men, who have not only physical capacity, but the superior school-training of the public schools in recent years, efficiency is the general character of German trade unionists. It is not surprising, therefore, that in a comparison of the numbers of unemployed unionists in German centres there should be found only one-third of the number recorded last year in England.

An exact comparison between unemployment in Germany and England would be interesting, but it is impossible, for (as "Engineering" shows) the conditions are so different. For example, in Germany, whenever his trade is slack, a trade unionist out of work does not hang on to his union, but takes temporarily any kind of job in any trade that offers; and if he refuses to do this, his union will not grant him any relief. If a rural worker in Germany be attracted to town, and fails to get employment, he does not, like the English rural labourer, swell the ranks of the unemployed at street-corners, but hastens back again to the labour on the land from which he fled.

CENTENARIES IN 1909.

A remarkable number of centenaries of great men will be celebrated in 1909. Here are some of them:

Abraham Lincoln, sixteenth President of the United States, born February 12th, 1809.

Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, German musician, born February 3rd, 1809.

Edgar Allan Poe, American poet and writer of tales, born January 19th, 1809.

Edward Fitzgerald, the translator of Omar Khayyam, born March 31st, 1809.

Richard Monckton Milnes (Lord Houghton), statesman and poet, born June 19th, 1809.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, the American poet and essayist, born August 29th, 1809.

W. E. Gladstone, born December 29th, 1809.

A. W. Kingslake, historian of the Crimean War, born August 5th, 1809.

F. F. Chopin, Polish musician, born March 1st, 1809.

Lord Tennyson, born August 6th, 1809.

CHINESE & THE TRANSVAAL.

The total number of Chinese admitted into the Transvaal was 63,453. At the end of August, 1908, there were only 17,006 left, and it is expected that they will all be expatriated by the end of 1909.

OLD MEN'S ACCIDENTS.

"A statement has been prepared for me, with great care and considerable labour, **showing the proportions in which the workmen in the employment of Brunner, Mond, & Co., had at varying ages met with accidents reported under various Acts of Parliament,**" writes Sir John Brunner in a letter to the "Times." And he goes on to give facts in favour of employing old men, because they are less liable to accidents. "The total number of men is, on the average, 3,818, and the calculation is for fifteen years, 1893 to 1907, inclusive, in the case of four works, and for eight years, 1900 to 1907, inclusive, in the case of one. Boys under eighteen are left out of account, for the reason that the considerations which lead to their employment are apart from the subject under discussion. **Here is the table which shows the accidents at different ages:**

Ages.	of Men.	Percentage of accidents per annum.
18–25	633	8·5
26–30	533	6·8
31–35	616	4·2
36–40	656	3·6
41–45	531	2·8
46–50	382	3·7
51–55	251	2·4
56 & over	246	2·4

THE PROGRESS OF SOCIALISM.

OBJECTS OF SOCIALISM: INFORMATION: STATISTICS.

By EDWARD R. PEASE,
Secretary of the Fabian Society.

Everybody, friend and foe, is beginning to recognise that, for good or evil, **Socialism** is to be **the world-movement of the opening century.** This is not the first time that the nations have been stirred by a common impulse to throw off bonds which have become unbearable.

The Feudal System, when its time was up, was disturbed and finally destroyed by peasant risings, not only in England, but throughout Europe. **Religious freedom** was the next international demand, and more than a century [illegible]ed by the [illegible] land between those who were determined to worship as they pleased, and those who upheld the exclusive claims of Rome.

That long fight was by no means finished before the **divine right of kings** was called in question, first in England, then, after a long pause, in America, in France, and everywhere. That battle is not quite ended yet. Czar and Kaiser, for all their concessions, still claim their thrones in fact, and not merely in form, as held by divine appointment, independently of the will of their subjects. Elsewhere, the peoples are admittedly the rulers; every country is "free."

But political liberty had been by no means [illegible] whe[illegible] be[illegible] whi[illegible] heard of **a new tyranny.** A century ago, voices crying in the wilderness began to attract attention, **Robert Owen** first, and then **Carlyle, Ruskin, Kingsley,** all preaching a new gospel of work as the only just claim to wealth.

The revolt of the twentieth century, like all the others, **is world-wide.** The new tyrant, too, is international. Capital can pass from land to land more rapidly than any emperor with his army, or Papal legate with his suite. Everywhere the common people are beginning to realise that though baron and priest and king can no longer oppress them in the name of the law, **the owner of capital is their master,** [illegible] hi[illegible] every day.

A twentieth century revolt takes a different form from those of other periods. Peasants with scythes and torches were succeeded by burghers with pikes and muskets, and these again by citizens with barricades and rifles. At last physical force has done its work. The present day struggle is decided **by the counting of ballot papers.**

It is in America that the issue is joined most clearly, because capitalists have had no competitors in an otherwise dead-level democracy. There the question is everywhere asked—**Shall the trusts control the nation, or the nation control the trusts?** Elsewhere the problem is not quite so obvious. But in England and France and Germany, the workman is as helpless in face of the factory-owner, the mine-owner, the shipping ring, the steel kartel, as is the American farmer or lawyer before the Standard Oil or the Beef Trust.

At the present day, **all capital** in relation to **the workman is of the nature of a trust.** Each capitalist is in himself a combination, because he employs hundreds, thousands, and even tens of thousands of men; and even when the employers are not almagamated in a trust, they are combined in a masters' association, which presents a united front to the operatives.

The fight for **economic freedom,** then, is the **keynote of modern Socialism.** Capital, in the form of machinery, rules the lives of the manual workers of all lands. Wherever the employer places his factory or his mine or his furnaces, there his workpeople must live. At the sound of his hooter, they must troop to his works. Their safety, health, and comfort are in his hands, subject only to the limitations of the law. Whether they work overtime or short time depends on his will or his business ability; their wages are regulated by the bargains they can make with him.

It is not suggested that he is always or often tyrannical or unreasonable. All I want to point out is that the master, as he is rightly called, is master of the daily lives of his "hands," and that the workpeople, as such, are compelled to sell by far the greater part of their waking lives to private employers over whom they have no sort of control.

The direct result of this system is, on the one hand, **great masses of wage-earners, divorced from the soil,** crowded in ugly towns or squalid industrial villages, earning a bare living wage with the scantiest of resources when a time of depression throws them by thousands into the ranks of the unemployed. On the other hand, we have the **multi-millionaires of Park Lane** and Fifth Avenue, the vulgar ostentations luxury and waste of our London season, and of Paris, New York, Monte Carlo, and other resorts, of the wives and children of our financial and industrial magnates.

Against all this ill-adjustment **the workers** of the world are rising in revolt. They have been given the vote and told to use it for settling all sorts of problems in which they have but little interest. Rival politicians dispute as to whether Ireland shall have Home Rule, and what precisely is to be the shade of sectarian teaching for their children at school. If their votes can determine these issues, why cannot they be used for regulating matters which affect their daily lives far more closely?

POLITICAL LABOUR UNITED.

Socialism, then, is the demand of the workers of the world that they be freed from **the tyranny of irresponsible capital,** and that reward of their labour should no longer go in the main to those who live in idleness.

The community as a whole must both own and manage the industry of the country in the interests of the people of the country.

Feudal barons, mediæval priests, absolute monarchs, have all been forced to relinquish their privileges. Now the turn of the private capitalist is coming.

Socialism in England has made an extraordinary advance during the past year in a

matter which has attracted but little attention. Socialism as a political force—and it can only accomplish its mission by means of politics—is embodied in the **Labour Party**, which has hitherto consisted of one million **Trade Unionists** and two Socialist Societies, **the Fabian Society** and the **Independent Labour Party**.

There are **2,000,000 Trade Unionists in Great Britain**, and the Labour Party had only secured one half of them, because the miners stood outside, and the Scotch were not included in the English party. This year **the English Labour Party has annexed Scotland**—the details of a complex situation are not worth relating—and the **500,000 miners, in one block, with their 15 Members of Parliament, have come over to the Labour Party. From this year onwards, political labour is united under the banner of independence—the Labour Party will stand for labour in politics.**

It is true that **the Labour Party has refused, and will refuse to pledge itself to Socialism**—that is, to make a profession of Socialism compulsory on its adherents. But in politics, it is deeds, and not words, that count. Ask a miner what he wants from politics. He is no Socialist, of co......, but he wants an eight hours day by law, the nationalisation of the mines, and of the railways, and probably the land also. Ask for the Labour Party's programme, and you will be told they have none—some Socialists and others are not. Ask what Bills they have introduced into Parliament, and you will find that they are all Socialistic—Wag Boards to prevent sweating, Eight Hours for Miners, and Nationalisation for Mines and Railways, and everything else that is even remotely on the horizon of politics.

Within the Socialist movement, not only in England but throughout the world, **there is a constant struggle between two schools of thought, two policies of action.** On the one side stand those who believe that Socialism will be achieved by a physical force revolution, or by a Socialist victory in a general election leading to a Ministry which will introduce a complete scheme of Socialism. This party sets as its main object the making of Socialists, the increase of members in Socialist societies, the casting of a big Socialist vote at elections.

On the other side stand those who regard Socialism as a principle which is gradually being adopted, a force which is insensibly moulding social forms and altering the opinions of mankind. This section believes rather in making Socialism than in making Socialists. It does not look forward to the day of dramatic changes. It does not even expect that a majority of the nation will ever describe themselves as Socialists. It wants to win elections, and does not care what votes its candidates poll, provided there are enough of them.

In England, the **Social Democratic Party** stands for the former school, and the **Labour Party** for the latter. The other Socialists occupy a middle position, swayed sometimes towards one policy, and sometimes towards the other.

In Germany there was a great fight this year between the two sections within the ranks of the powerful and formally united Social Democratic Party. The South Germans, from the relatively democratic states of Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg, gave support to governments which had granted certain demands. The Prussian section argued that a Social Democrat must always oppose the Government. The Prussians were victorious at the Congress by 258 votes to 119, but the minority for the "Revisionist" policy was far larger and weightier than ever before, and the defeat of the Southerners was a "moral" victory in fact, and not merely in phrase.

In Italy a similar battle was fought, and in this case the party of action defeated the extremists completely.

Two surveys of the Socialism of the world have recently been issued.

Mr. Robert Hunter of New York has written "Socialists at Work" (The Macmillan Co.: 1908. 6s. 6d. net), in which he describes what the chief European Socialist parties actually are, who are their chiefs, what are their programmes, and what they have achieved.

For those who read French an even fuller survey of Socialism is to be found in the reports presented to the International Socialist Congress at Stuttgart, in the autumn of 1907; published at the Maison du Peuple, Brussels, in two volumes, for 5 francs.

The following statistical tables are taken from "Socialists at Work," pp. 253 and 322:

SOCIALISTS IN PARLIAMENT.

Russia (Second Duma*).	132	out of 440
Austria	87	353
Finland	80	200
France		584
Germany	43	397
England (Labour Party).	32	670
Belgium†		,, 166
Italy		,, 508
Denmark‡	24	,, 114
Sweden	15	,, 230
Norway	10	,, 117
Holland	7	,, 100
Luxemburg		,, 45
Switzerland		,, 167
Servia		,, 160
	547	4.251

*The third Duma was not elected on a popular franchise. These 132 are now mostly in Siberia. †Also 7 Senators. ‡Also 4 Senators.

SOCIALIST PARLIAMENTARY VOTE AT THE LAST ELECTION (Russia omitted).

Germany	1907	3,258,968
Austria	1907	1,041,948
France	1906	900,000
Belgium	1904	469,094
United States	1904	409,230
Great Britain	1906	350,000
Finland	1907	330,000
Italy	1904	320,000
Denmark	1906	77,000
Switzerland	1908 ..	70,000
Holland	1905 ..	65,743
Norway	1906 ..	45,000
Sweden	1905	35,000
Spain	1904	29,000
Chili	1906	18,000
Bulgaria ..	1903	9,000
Argentina ..	1906	3,500
Servia ..	1906	3,133
		7,434,616

INTERNATIONAL SOCIALISM.

Every three years the Socialists of the world assemble to discuss the problems of their common faith. The last Congress was held at Stuttgart, Germany, in 1907. The next, in 1910, will be held at Copenhagen.

During the intervening period **the International Socialist Bureau** provides a common meeting-ground. It is located at Brussels, in the Maison du Peuple, and consists of two delegates from each nationality (which is not precisely the same as each nation: Socialists have their own ideas on this matter). It meets once a quarter, and issues manifestoes, usually on the subject of the misdeeds of the Tsar. The English delegates are J. Keir Hardie, M.P., and H. M. Hyndman.

In connection with the International Bureau, each nation has, or, at any rate the British nation has, its National Committees, elected by the Socialist societies and trade unions, which contribute to the International Fund. This Committee meets to instruct its delegates whenever required. The secretary is Alderman W. Sanders, of the Fabian Society, 3, Clement's Inn, Strand. The secretary of the International Bureau is Camille Huysmans.

ENGLISH SOCIALISM.

In England there are three National Socialist Societies:

The Independent Labour Party: Head Office, 23, Bride Lane, Fleet Street, London. Chairman, J. Ramsay MacDonald, M.P. Number of branches, 959. Federations of branches, 50. Organ, "The Labour Leader" (weekly, 1d.). About twenty of its members sit in Parliament, all but one of them (Mr. Victor Grayson) as members of the Labour Party. It has about 900 representatives on town, county, district, and other local governing authorities.

The Social Democratic Party (21A, Maiden Lane, W.C.) has about 250 branches, but exact statistics are not published. One of its members sits in Parliament as a Labour Member.

The Fabian Society (3, Clement's Inn, Strand, W.C.) consists of a parent society in London, with 2,500 members, and 36 local societies in provincial towns and in the universities. Total membership something less than 3,000. It has 11 members in the House of Commons—5 sitting as Liberals, and 6 as Labour Party. It is influential more in the character of its members than in their numbers.

The Labour Party (28, Victoria Street, S.W.) is the political organisation of Trade Unionism and Socialism. It consists of trade unions, trade councils, etc., and two Socialist societies. Its Parliamentary party numbers 31. It is not in name a Socialist body.

FRENCH SOCIALISM.

The French Socialist Party, which for many years had been split into hostile groups, has been recently united into one body. In France Socialists have attained a greater measure of power than anywhere else, since within recent years three of their foremost men have taken seats in Cabinets, whilst their leader, Jaurès, is the greatest orator, and perhaps the most conspicuous personality of the day.

The opposition to the Parliamentary party in France takes the form of advocacy of the General Strike (that is a strike of the workers for the purpose of precipitating a revolution) by trade unions tainted with Anarchism, whilst the extreme anti-militarist teachings of Hervé are another discordant element.

The Party possesses 1 senator, 52 deputies, 60 conseillers generaux, 51 conseillers d'arrondissement, 149 mayors, 219 adjoints, and 2,160 municipal councillors. It has 46 papers, mostly weekly, but including 2 dailies, in addition to Jauré's well-known journal, "L'Humanité." At the municipal elections of 1908 a certain number of these seats have been lost, but precise statistics are not yet available. **The Secretary of the Party is Louis Dubreuilh, 16, Rue de la Corderie, Paris.**

GERMAN SOCIALISM.

The German Social Democratic Party easily holds the premier position in the movement, on account of age, and size, and solidity. It is true that their Parliamentary Party was badly defeated in 1907, and reduced from 81 to 43, but the votes cast increased by a quarter of a million to 3,258,968, and the inequality of the electoral divisions is such that the next largest party, the Centre, which polled only 2,183,381 votes had 105 members. With equal electoral districts, the party would have 105 seats out of 397.

In spite of the restrictions upon political activities in Germany the Social Democratic Party is an immensely solid and successful organisation. **Its membership is 587,000.** Its Press is the best indication of its power. It has 71 daily papers, and a dozen others, including a comic journal with a circulation of 235,000. The total of the subscribers is over 1,000,000. Besides the 43 representatives in the Reichstag it has 151 members sitting in 18 States Parliaments, and 5,931 members who are municipal and district councillors. The income of the National Executive Committee of the Party for the year 1907-8 was over £45,000, exclusive of the incomes of the local branches. **The address of the National Executive Committee** is 68, Linden Strasse, Berlin.

SOCIALISM ELSEWHERE.

The Italian Socialist movement is said to be largely dominated by middle-class leaders. In 1906 it had 1,249 sections, and 41,264 paying members. It is closely connected with unions of workmen and peasants; and with a restricted franchise, the Socialists in 1904 polled over one-fifth of the votes cast, though they have only 25 out of 508 deputies. In about 100 municipalities the party has a majority. It has one daily paper, the "Avanti," in the capital, 4 in the provinces, and about 100 weekly and other papers and periodicals.

The Belgian Socialist Party is remarkable for its success in managing a great system of co-operative trading, which started from bread-making, and has grown to very large proportions, whilst it provides substantial funds for the party. Address, Maison du Peuple, Brussels.

The American Socialist Party is split up into sections like the English, only more so. There is now a "Socialist Party" which polled 409,230 votes in 1904, and is expected to do better at the election of 1908.

SOCIALISM AND LIBERTY.

LORD BALFOUR OF BURLEIGH AND INDIVIDUALISM.

Lord Balfour of Burleigh, as President of **the British Constitution Association, has made a vigorous attack on Socialism.** Here are some of his points:

The watchwords of our association are personal liberty and personal responsibility. Its object is to increase liberty and to inculcate responsibility, and as **we believe that self-help is the mainstay of national character,** we desire to maintain the freedom of the individual, which freedom ought to be limited only in so far as is necessary for the enjoyment of equal freedom by others.

We resist the usurpation of power by Government, or the subjection, either of the individual or of the minority, to coercion on the part of the majority of the community. We believe that the only safe path of progress lies in the continued advance of that freedom, and in **the ever-increasing emancipation of the individual from interference by the community in the management of his personal affairs.**

The British Constitution has not stood in the way of change, but it has secured in a marked degree that change shall not take place until after full discussion; that when it does take place it shall be moderate, gradual, carefully considered, and along consistent and practical lines.

The justification of our association is that at the present time **there appears to be a danger that both parties, though one in a greater degree than the other, are losing sight of what has been our chief glory in the past,** namely, that without abating our national strength and unity we have been able to secure that ever-broadening liberty for the individual which we so earnestly desire to preserve. We may be wrong—I could even hope we are—in thinking that the zeal of some for increasing the responsibility of the State, with its inevitable accompaniment of increase of taxation, is endangering those liberties.

We are sometimes accused of having no positive policy, but surely the maintenance of freedom gained by the individual under our Constitution as it now exists, and through a long series of evolutionary changes, is a positive policy. Neither the importance nor the strength of that cause seem to us to be sufficiently realised, nor are those who support it sufficiently organised; and our object is to prevent the formation and growth of any general opinion that there ought to be no limit to the control which either the State through Parliament, or the community through municipalities, should arrogate to themselves.

We think that the spread of ideas of a Socialist type threatens to destoy the moral fibre of our people, and that if these ideas are allowed to grow and develop the result must be the destruction of the ideals alike of self-help and of personal liberty.

We rely for all improvement on well-directed but independent individual effort, and on the encouragement of each individual to raise himself and the family unit to which he belon, and by so doing to contribute to the general good.

Is it too much to say that the contest which lies before us will be one between Socialism and Liberty? We shall criticise the proposals of Socialism when any definite proposals are made; and if only they are put forward in a sufficiently definite form, it does not seem to me that this will be a difficult task. But we shall also do our best to maintain and support the principle of personal responsibility, which is the corollary of personal liberty.

If we give way to proposals which must result in relieving grown men, who ought to be capable citizens, to an unlimited extent of their personal responsibilities, national bankruptcy must be the inevitable result. For if, as would be certain, we weaken, or still more if we remove, the check involved in personal responsibility, the result must be the levelling down of the efficient to the same plane as the inefficient.

At present the feeling of personal responsibility prevents men from consuming on Monday wages which ought to meet their expenses till Saturday. It puts some restriction on the age at which marriage is contracted, and on the rate at which population increases; it induces the majority to make arrangements for their times of sickness, old age, and want of work. Under Socialism all these restrictions would vanish, and how the State could cope with the ever-increasing torrent passes my comprehension. While all men desire liberty, while even the Socialist professes to be anxious to secure it for us, it is really only possible when it is tempered by personal responsibility; and the discharge of personal responsibility is the exercise-ground on which competency of character is acquired; and when all is said and done it is on character that progress depends.

But apart from criticism showing the impracticability of Socialism, it should be our business to demonstrate **how much in the past and in the present we owe to liberty.** That we owe the greatness of our country and the confidence which men feel in the stability of law and order to our free institutions is a proposition which no constitutional historian will attempt to deny.

We describe as "**Political Socialism**" all legislation in the interest of one special class—namely, those that are least efficient. Our desire is to advocate the maximum of individual liberty; it is, therefore, totally removed from anarchy, which is that state of affairs in which the freedom of the individual as to his life and his property would be at the mercy of those who desire to interfere with them.

If the British Constitution Association is attacked as being a defender of monopoly, the reply would be that **the chief reason for our existence is to attack monopoly.** The scheme of the Socialist is to establish a monopoly of the largest scale, and with the strictest order that the world has ever seen. He desires that the "State" should be the one employer. Under his system competition would be eliminated, incentive to progress would be destroyed, and the working man would be reduced to the position of a slave, for if under such a system he disagreed with his employer or was dissatisfied with his wages he could not leave his employment and seek for a more

satisfactory position; there would be only one employer and one master, and that employer and that master he must serve or starve. **Under the Socialist régime liberty, as we understand the term, would cease and be unknown.**

The very object of the British Constitution Association is to increase freedom, and to prevent the stereotyping of society in any form. If one may trust to the arguments they put forward, those who describe themselves as Socialists think they know what an ideal society would be like, and they wish to make our present civilisation correspond with what they think that ideal society ought to be.

We believe that the **ultimate state of society will be something not within the imagination of anyone now living.** If at any period of the past Socialists had arisen and moulded society into some form which they considered good, it is obvious that development would have been arrested, and even the amount of progress which we have made would have been rendered impossible. We advocate the maximum of individual liberty in order to render as easy as possible the normal course of social evolution. We do not deny the evils which exist in the present state of society; but we do affirm not only that Socialism is not the remedy for them, but that if ever carried out in practice it would make the position of the average individual many times worse than it is at present.

Socialists seem to forget that **society is composed of individuals**, and that so long as the characters of individuals are imperfect it will be impossible to have a state of society which is devoid of evils. It is easy enough to see now where difficulties exist, but it is utterly unscientific to think that an ideal state can be devised so long as the characters of those who will have to form it remain imperfect as is now the case. We advocate individual freedom because of its encouragement to the efficient, and because it alone can prevent them from being unduly burdened for the benefit of those less capable. It may be a hard doctrine, but we do say that for the State to follow any other principle must lead to disaster.

Revolutionary economic changes are demanded. But I ask those who suggest them, what right have they to expect a speedy millennium? Let us admit that **Socialism is based on a sentiment with which we all sympathise.** It is a proof that generous aspiration has grown up during ages in which the characteristic and essential feature of progress has been the growth of liberty. We have no quarrel with the sentiments which underlie some of the theories put forward, but we are entitled to ask our countrymen to pause and reflect before they depart from principles which have served so well in the past, and which not only permit but involve a continuous improvement, even though that improvement may seem slower and more gradual than many would wish to see.

Is it intended to bring within practical politics as a definite object such a scheme as, for example, nationalisation of land?

Sir Henry Fowler quoted with approval a cogent criticism by Mr. Gladstone of this very proposal: **"Are you going to pay for it? If so, it is folly; if not, it is robbery."**

I suggest that it would be nothing short of madness on the part of the State to place itself by purchase in the position of an universal landlord. Nor, again, is there any class of speculation more hazardous than the purchase of land on the faith of its being required for building purposes. It is difficult to see how the State could gain by paying even a low market value and taking all the risks.

It is true that **land has a high value in the centres of population** because many people desire to have it, but this is the cause of all rises of value, and the person who is willing to pay the highest price is presumably the person who sees his way to make the best use of it. We are not told how **the occupation of favourite sites** would be allotted under the Socialistic system. Would it be to the highest bidder, as at present, or would it be to the persons who have interest with the local authorities? In other words, are favourite sites to be allotted at the discretion of the local political manager?

But, again, take the supposition that the land is not to be purchased, but is to be annexed, and it will not affect the argument whether the annexation is made by the method of taxing the annual proceeds to extinction by confiscation at the end of existing lives, or by the same process at an earlier date.

It has been calculated that **if the entire interest of the National Debt and the whole profit of the railways were to be divided among the population** the result would be to give to every man in the country about a penny a day. A similar calculation of the amount per head to be gained by the community if the land of the country were to be confiscated and divided would show how small even the nominal amount of gain would be, and that although no account is taken of the enormous evils that would result from such a proceeding.

Most of the land of Great Britain is held on titles which are as equitable as that by which any other property is held. Thousands of working men, more especially in the North, have bought their own freehold or leasehold houses. Building societies are for the most part the investments of working people. Ground rents, with and without the reversion of the freehold, are bought and sold daily in the market, and are largely held by working class provident and insurance societies.

It is too often forgotten that those who own capital are not of one class cut off from the rest of the world, and living on the remainder. Such division takes no account of the millions belonging to the small investors in industrial and provident societies, in friendly societies and trade unions, nor of the £50,000,000 belonging to the million and a half investors in the Savings Banks.

There is absolutely no more justification for confiscation of land than there is for the confiscation of any kind of property. Increments of value have arisen more suddenly and unexpectedly in the case of many other classes of property than in land values.

A volume entitled "Political Socialism: a Remonstrance" is published by the British Constitution Association at 1s., and contains Lord Balfour's complete statement. It is quite an armoury of facts and points against Socialism. Office: 23, Charing Cross, S.W.

THE ANTI-SOCIALIST UNION.

ITS OBJECT IS TO COMBAT SOCIALISM.

The Anti-Socialist Union was formed as the result of a conference held in London, at which the various associations engaged in combating Socialism were represented. The need of a central organisation to direct and co-ordinate the national movement against Socialism was recognised, and the associations represented at the conference undertook to assist the central organisation by all means in their power.

After some months spent in the preliminary work of organisation, the Anti-Socialist Union is now taking the field, and will henceforward combat Socialism in all its forms and developments.

In view of the recent spread of Socialism in this country, as shown by the fact that **the two leading Socialist organisations now have nearly eleven hundred branches**—an increase of more than three hundred and fifty branches in the past eighteen months—it is recognised that the anti-Socialist movement, to be effectual, must be organised on a proportionate scale. To this end the Anti-Socialist Union has made arrangements for a national propaganda.

The first step which has been taken is the establishment of a school for speakers. Having regard to the special experience, activity, and plausibility of the Socialist agitators, and their unsettling effect on the masses, it is considered highly important that a body of competent trained speakers should be organised to oppose them. The school for speakers which has been originated by the Anti-Socialist Union, at the suggestion of Mr. Claude Lowther, is now in full working order. Classes are held daily, at which speakers are taken through a complete course of Socialism, the arguments for and against the Socialist case being thoroughly thrashed out.

The Anti-Socialist Union has made arrangements to send out speakers to all parts of the country where Socialism is making headway. Addresses will be delivered at clubs, mechanics' institutes, &c., and open-air meetings will be organised in all the Socialist centres. No representative of the Union is allowed to speak until he is well grounded in his subject, and has passed a viva voce examination.

The Publication Department is now being rapidly organised, and arrangements have been made to supply a continuous series of special articles exposing the fallacies and danger of Socialism to the Press of the United Kingdom. These articles, which are of unusually high literary and political value, have been undertaken by expert writers, who are dealing with separate phases of the Socialist movement.

Some of the most brilliant journalists in the country have joined the Union, and are giving the movement the benefit of their support. Among the writers of the first series of articles will be Mr. Lawler Wilson, Mr. J. L. Garvin, Mr. H. W. Wilson, and Professor Welsford.

A set of anti-Socialist publications, comprising booklets, pamphlets and leaflets, is now in preparation. The contentions and statistics of the Socialist writers will be carefully analysed, and their mis-statements exposed. In this series, specific replies to "Merrie England," "The Socialists' Budget," the Fabian "Facts for Socialists," and the more widely circulated pamphlets of the Independent Labour Party, the Fabian Society, and the Social Democratic Party, will be published.

An Intelligence Department has been formed The work of this department is to collect and collate all useful matter on the subject of Socialism. The speeches of Socialist leaders will be kept on file, together with a mass of useful statistics, drawn from British and foreign sources. The library of this department contains a large collection of Socialistic literature, including books, pamphlets, leaflets, and periodicals.

A system of **reports from socialistic centres** has been arranged. The correspondents of the Anti-Socialist Union forward particulars of the course of the movement in their localities, with reports of statements made by Socialist speakers.

Special attention is paid to the **progress of the Continental movement,** from which the English movement obtains so much political support in the form of ideas, proposals, and propaganda.

One of the foremost objects of the Anti-Socialist Union **is to form a school of political thought in opposition** to Socialism. An anti-Socialist circle, composed of speakers, writers, Members of Parliament, and others interested in the movement of resistance to Socialism, will meet monthly, and hold informal discussions at which members will exchange views and suggestions.

The Chairman of the Anti-Socialist Union is Mr. Claude Lowther; Hon. Treasurer, Lord Abinger; Secretary, Mr. Isaac Lyons; Literary Secretary, Mr. W. Lawler Wilson, 20, Victoria Street, S.W.

ANTI-SOCIALIST ORGANISATIONS.

The societies whose purpose it is to combat Socialism are:

Industrial Freedom League, 124, Palace Chambers, Westminster, S.W. Secretary: Mr. P. S. Brideford.

Liberty and Property Defence League, 25, Victoria Street. Secretary: Mr. F. Millar.

British Constitution Association, 23, Charing Cross, S.W. Secretary: Mr. Max Judge.

London Municipal Society, 11, Tothill Street, Westminster, S.W. Secretary: Mr. Towler.

Anti-Socialist League, 20, Victoria Street, S.W.

Anti-Socialist Department of the Liberal Unionist Council, 6, Great George Street, S.W.

SOCIALIST SOCIETIES.

Fabian Society, 3, Clement's Inn, W.C. Secretary: Mr. E. R. Pease.

Independent Labour Party, 23, Bride Lane. Secretary: Mr. F Johnson.

Social Democratic Federation, 21A, Maiden Lane, W.C. Secretary: Mr. H. W. Lee.

THE ENNOBLEMENT OF MANKIND.

THE EUGENICS EDUCATION SOCIETY'S IDEAL.

Eugenics is the study of agencies under social control that may improve or impair the racial qualities of future generations either physically or mentally.

The report of the Physical Deterioration Committee (1904) says that:

"The Committee are impressed with the conviction that **some general educative impulse is in request** which will bring home to the community at large the gravity of the issue, and the extent to which it is within individual effort to promote and make effective the conclusions of expert opinion."

Mr. Francis Galton, the founder of the science of race culture, says that:

"The fact that the laws of heredity apply to man equally with the lower animals and plants, and that the **mental functions are subject to the same laws of heredity as the physical ones**, has yet to be taken to heart by the public.

"The salutary effects of natural selection in preventing the degeneracy of a race are so largely interfered with, and sometimes even [illegible]ed, by [illegible] that othe[illegible] prevention is peremptorily demanded.

"If we apply the general word degenerate to the insane, to the imbecile, to the habitual criminal, and to those who are naturally liable to some of the more serious diseases, it is found that a degenerate is no less fertile than a normal person, apparently a little more so, and that such persons frequently marry.

"**Each married degenerate** produces on the average one child who is as degenerate as himself or herself, and others in whom the taint is latent, but liable to appear in a succeeding generation. **The taint of degeneracy** in our population is now alarmingly great, and threatens to increase indefinitely under the present conditions.

"Probably one of the first efforts in practical eugenics will be to **restrict the propagation of children by the notoriously unfit**, whose marriages are now unhindered, if not sometimes fostered by mistaken kindliness.

"Efforts have also to be made in the opposite direction, namely, in **creating social agencies that shall promote the propagation of the fit**, as, for instance, by facilitating employment to married persons of good stock, and providing their families when poor with better housing and nurture than they could otherwise obtain.

"The power of public opinion being enormously great, we may rest assured that after the importance of eugenics shall have become generally recognised, many **social influences will be brought to bear, and numerous customs will establish themselves, that shall further eugenic conduct with a gentle yet almost irresistible force.**"

The Eugenics Education Society has for its **objects**:

(1) Persistently to set forth the national importance of eugenics in order to modify public opinion, and create a sense of responsibility in the respect of bringing all matters pertaining to human parenthood **under the** domination of eugenic ideals.

(2) To spread a knowledge of **the laws of** heredity so far as they are surely known, **and** so far as that knowledge **might effect the** improvement of the race.

(3) To further eugenic teaching **at home**, in the schools, and elsewhere.

The Eugenics Education Society **exists to uphold the ideal of parenthood as the highest and most responsible of human powers;** to proclaim that the racial instinct is therefore supremely sacred, and its exercise, through marriage, for the service of the future, the loftiest of all privileges. It stands "for a transfigured sentiment of parenthood which regards with solicitude not child and grandchild only, but the generations to come hereafter—fathers of the future creating and providing for their remote children." That which too many schools of thought and practice have derided or defiled it seeks to elevate and ennoble.

Parenthood on the part of the diseased, the insane, the alcoholic—where these conditions promise to be transmitted—must be denounced as a crime against the future. In these directions the society stands for active legislation, and for the formation of that public opinion which legislation, if it is to be effective, must express. Parenthood on the part of the worthy must be buttressed, guided, and extolled. The society stands for the education of the young regarding the responsibility and holiness of the racial function of parenthood.

Offices: 6, York Buildings, Adelphi, W.C. Hon. Secretary: Mrs. Gotto.

PHYSICAL IMPROVEMENT.

The work of the National League for Physical Education and Improvement (incorporated 1905) may be outlined in the statement of policy of its London Branch Council.

Infants and Children under School Age.—To check the high rate of infantile mortality:

(a) By ensuring prompt and early registration of births.

(b) By establishing in each borough a staff of health visitors, qualified to instruct mothers both regarding their own health and the nursing and rearing of their infants.

(c) By ensuring in each borough the supply of clean and pure milk, in the interest especially of those infants for whom artificial rearing is necessary.

Children of School Age.—To improve the condition of these children:

(a) By enforcing adequate medical inspection in the schools.

(b) By providing against underfeeding, misfeeding, and inadequate clothing.

Working Lads and Girls.—To ameliorate their condition:

(a) By promoting the proper regulation of their employment.

Secretary of the National League: Mr. B. Halley, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.

RACE SUICIDE.

TWO GERMANS FOR EVERY FRENCHMAN.

Increasing attention is being paid to the declining birth-rates in several countries. The most conspicuous case is that of France. But in England it is decreasing, too—from 29·8 per 1,000 in 1893 to 26 per 1,000 in 1907.

The seriousness of the case for France has been pointed out by M. de Foville, President of the Academie des Sciences, Morales et Politiques. He says:

"The latest figures prove that **France as a nation is slowly but surely dying.** In 100 years the birth-rate has fallen from 32 per 1,000 to 19·7, and at the present moment, **for the first time in history, and in France alone among nations, the deaths exceed the births.**

"Since the twentieth century began the decline has continued at the following alarming rate: Excess of births over deaths, 1902, 84,000; 1903, 73,000; 1904, 57,000; 1905, 37,000; 1906, 27,000. Last year, 1907, zero was reached and passed. There were 20,000 more deaths than births. The official returns are 794,000 and 774,000 under these respective heads. The word 'depopulation,'" M. de Foville points out, "is, therefore, no exaggeration. Is it," he asks, "the beginning of the end?

"At this rate **France will soon be ripe for invasion.** It is the only fate awaiting a country which is capable of supporting 80,000,000 inhabitants and is content with half that number. **In 1875 the population of Germany surpassed that of France by 6,000,000; it now exceeds it by over 20,000,000. In another twenty years there will be two Germans for every Frenchman,** without counting the sons of the Fatherland scattered all over the globe by emigration. Thus, France," concludes M. de Foville, "is marching with quickened step to her doom."

As to the causes, the writer contends that they are political and economic as well as moral. The law is lax in regard to certain criminal practices, it has made divorce ridiculously easy, and it winks at pernicious teachings. Nothing, in fact, is being done to arrest the gradual extinction of a great race.

In the **United Kingdom,** in 1907, the excess of births over deaths was 469,000. Here are some figures showing how the matter stands in other countries. These figures are for different years:

Austria ..	+323,078
Belgium ..	+67,387
Germany ..	+822,839
Hungary ..	+229,163
Italy	+374,108
Netherlands ..	+87,695
Russia ..	+2,464,258
Switzerland ..	+36,400
France ..	−20,000

In France alone is there a decrease. But the facts are serious in some other countries.

In Ireland, in 1907, the number of births was 101,742; of deaths, 77,334– an excess of 24,408 births.

But the ratio was lower, being 0·4 below the previous year. And the death-rate was 0·7 above the previous year, but under the average for ten years.

New Zealand's birth-rate fell from an average of 41·32 per 1,000 in 1876–1880, to only 27·08 per 1,000 in 1906.

BERLIN'S BIRTH-RATE.

Statistics published by the Berlin "Vorwärts" show that Germany is affected by the almost universal fall in the birth-rate. In 1907 births in Berlin numbered 52,494, this being at the rate of 25 per 1,000 inhabitants. In 1876 the rate was 47 per 1,000, and the total 46,293. The number of families with three children decreased from 7,087 in 1887 to 6,484 in 1907; with four children, from 4,920 to 4,070; and with five, from 3,571 to 2,509. Account must also be taken of the great increase in Berlin's population, so that the figures are really more significant than they appear at first sight.

JAPANESE MARRIAGE AND BIRTH RATE.

The marriage rate in Japan is decreasing. In 1901 it was 8·7 per 1,000, and in 1905 it was down to 7·5. The average rate for five years was 8·2.

The birth rate in Japan in 1901 was 34·4 per 1,000; then it became 32·4, 30·4, 30.34.

The death rate was 21·2 in 1901, and 21·0 in 1905.

In 1901 the excess of births in Japan was 13·1 per 1,000. It has since decreased to 9·3, a figure only paralleled in Austria and France.

Japan has the largest proportion of still-births. In 1904 and 1905 the numbers were 9·3 and 8·9 per 1,000. In Germany it is only 3 per 1,000, and in France (the highest in Europe) it is only half the Japanese rate.

NUMBERS OR IDEAS?

Discussing the upshot of depopulation in Western countries a writer in the "Secolo XIX." says:

A bright idea of one individual which becomes materialised in new inventions is worth more than the dark power of a multitude. Finance, industry, trade, and science—and we may even add war—require more than ever simple individual energy and efficiency, for to-day the individual dominates more than he has ever been known to have done.

"Then if we take this truth into account we shall easily see where it is well to apply our energy. It is useless to devise legislative means to persuade a civilised man to surround himself by a swarm of young barbarians, the fruit of his loins. Civilisation aims higher in each generation, as it has the past for an example. **So what we can do to meet the hordes of barbarians which are supposed to be threatening our Europe is to develop as much as possible the powers of our offspring—to raise their individuality, so that each one may be worth three others. And a population mediocral in numbers but individually highly developed will be able to disperse all the fears that rise against us from the statistics of simple figures.**"

SOME MEDICAL MATTERS.

CANCER: CONSUMPTION: MIDWIVES: OPIUM.

CANCER RESEARCH.

The Third Report of the Imperial Cancer Research Fund declares that the rationale of the early surgical removal of primary growths is amply justified, and that no substitute for it has yet been discovered.

Dr. Bashford, in his introduction, contests the theory vaguely held by a good many people that cancer is "congenital," and produced by the disordered development of embryonic cells. "The study of the incidence of cancer as determined by irritants in man," he says, "demonstrates absolutely that the generalisation of the idea of a congenital or embryonic origin is incorrect." This reflection is borne out by two novel items of evidence from India. In Kashmir, where cancer of the skin is common, the cause is easily traceable to the custom of carrying a small charcoal fire in an earthenware vessel close to the skin.

CONSUMPTION.

Pulmonary tuberculosis (says Dr. Bulstrode, in a valuable report on sanatoria) has in the last fifty years **declined so considerably as to point to the possibility of its approaching extinction.** In 1838 (he says) the deaths from consumption were 59,025, or 39·9 in every 10,000 persons living. In 1855 the numbers were 52,290, or 27·7 per 10,000. 19 the numbers were 39,746, or 11·5 per 10,000.

As to whether consumption is communicable from one person to another. Dr. Bulstrode says that the best test is furnished by the proportion in which those engaged in nursing, or attending upon it, are attacked. The facts show that they seldom fall ill, and this is the more remarkable as the data relative to their immunity partly relate to periods antecedent to the discovery of the bacillus, when no serious steps were taken to prevent infection either by dust or by droplets.

MILK SUPPLY.

Mr. John Burns said in the House of Commons, on March 5th, 1908, that "the time had come when we ought to have a larger, better, and cleaner milk supply, especially in the interest of the children in our large towns. The question had become a national one. He believed that the public could be protected without handicapping the farmer or harassing the dairyman, and that the interests of the progressive farmer and the clean and enterprising dairyman should lead them to co-operate in ensuring for their trade cleanly and scientific conditions. The Bill which he proposed to bring in would seek to secure cleanliness, purity, and reliability in the milk supply, and to remove the evils of overlapping jurisdiction, and would deal with the question of compensation in certain cases, with the conditions of valuation, the price to be paid, and a number of other matters. The Government would take into consideration the need of London for exceptional treatment on account of its exceptional character and size."

MIDWIVES.

After 1910, no woman is to practise midwifery unless properly qualified and registered.

This was a most salutary and indeed necessary step for the protection of both mothers and infants from the terrible consequences resulting from incapacity and ignorance, **for 50 per cent. of all births in England and Wales are attended by midwives, the majority of whom were formerly untrained.**

But Parliament, while preventing incompetent women from practising this profession, did not see fit to take any steps towards providing a sufficient supply of competent midwives; and it was with a view to making good this omission that the Association for Promoting the Training and Supply of Midwives was formed. Offices: Dacre House, Dean Farrar Street, Westminster.

OPIUM EVIL.

An Imperial Decree was issued on March 22nd, 1908, in Pekin, pointing out the evils of opium, and stating that the **British Government has agreed to decrease its importation for a trial period of three years,** in order to whether the cultivation of the poppy and the number of opium-smokers is lessened. Should such be the case, importation will be further decreased gradually.

The decree advises the people to abandon the habit, and orders the enforcement of the existing regulations and the elaboration of further measures to deal with the evil. It is based on a memorial from the Wai-wu-pu (Foreign Office), in which it is stated that means will be considered for the substitution of another tax for that on opium.

It has been decided to **put an end to the Opium Trade in Hong-Kong, Ceylon,** the Straits Settlements, and the Federated Malay States. **The export of opium from India is** also being gradually ended.

ETHOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

The object of the Ethological Society is the study of human nature, not through any one department of science, but taking from all its different branches the most practical and useful to arrive at a knowledge of the intellect and character of man, and the laws which govern their manifestation; and not limited to any one method of research, but collecting all material that is available and applying it to the preservation of the mental health of the individual, to education, moral reform, and the solution of various sociological problems.

A knowledge of the laws which govern human nature is most essential to the successful education of children, the happiness of the individual, the treatment of abnormal dispositions, and to the understanding of the mental and moral constitution of the criminal.

The society, while not excluding any subject from its purview, aims only at acquiring so much knowledge of each as is useful for practical purposes.

The President is Dr. Bernard Hollander. Secretary: Mr. P. W. Ames, 35A, Welbeck Street, W.

END THE SLUM & SAVE THE SUBURB.

THE YEAR'S HOUSING PROGRESS.

In any survey of the progress achieved during the past year in the direction of the better housing of the people, first place must be given to the Government's Bill.

The primary aim of the Housing and Town Planning Bill is to stamp out the slum at one end and to save the suburb at the other.

Town-planning is put forward to save the suburbs. Increased inspection and more stringent sanitary regulations are laid down as the means of deliverance from slumdom.

The need for a more drastic dealing with slum property is made clear by the fact that **a careful estimate shows some 700,000 dwellings in England either insanitary or overcrowded.** In other words, **10½ per cent. of the homes of England are a menace to public health.**

Again, the last census figures revealed **2,500,000 people living in overcrowded tenements.** The further fact was brought out that nearly one-fifth of the entire population lived in tenements of one, two, or three rooms. **The real test of the housing provisions of Mr. Burns's Bill will be the diminution in these figures shown in the census of 1911.**

The principal defect in the Bill **lies in its** failure to provide for the better adaptation of existing houses. In many quarters the housing problem could be solved simply by adapting deserted middle class houses to the needs of working class tenements. The very poorest, being the worst sufferers from slumdom, could not be helped in a better way than by the conversion of large houses into working-class flats.

The local authorities have already somewhat limited powers under Part III. of the principal Housing Act for helping the slum dwellers in this direction.

The adaptation clauses of the Act remained, however, a dead letter until the Camberwell Borough Council recently began to apply them. By so doing, **Camberwell has been able to transform a slum quarter that was the despair of Mr. Charles Booth into a healthy, law-abiding district,** without displacing the tenants or raising their rents. The Borough Council now owns over 500 tenements, all having been adapted under Part III.

What housing reformers looked for in Mr. Burns's Bill was an extension of these powers for adapting existing houses, with increased facilities to the local authorities for giving effect to them. The Minister who grapples wisely with this phase of the housing problem will, like Lord Shaftesbury, who passed the original Housing Act, go down to posterity as a great friend of the slum-dwellers.

As to the town-planning provisions of the Bill, here you have **an entirely new principle in British legislation.** It is not new in practice in this country, however. Private examples of model town-planning have been springing up in many quarters in recent years. The incentive has come from the model villages of Bournville and Port Sunlight, from the Garden City movement, and from the excellent schemes of the Tenant Copartnership bodies.

The Government proposals ought to work welcome changes in the methods of developing a city's outskirts. Instead of allowing the suburbs to grow up in the haphazard, piecemeal system of to-day, a system that has produced around London places like Tottenham, Canning Town, and Brentford, **the Bill empowers a local authority to map out its undeveloped areas on scientific lines.** Open spaces and recreation grounds must be considered before the raids of the speculative builder. Several local authorities may co-operate in carrying out a town-planning scheme.

The idea of town-planning by public bodies comes from Germany. The system there has undoubtedly raised the price of land and made the German working man's rent proportionately higher than is paid by the working classes in England. That danger can be avoided here if the local authorities give effect to the whole of the town-planning proposals in the Government's new Bill. They are empowered not only to plan out suburban estates, but to buy them. This power for purchasing land will, if wisely exercised, check speculation and prevent forced prices. For these are the things which ultimately have to be paid for in rent.

About the middle of last year, **an important conference on housing took** place in London, attended by some three hundred delegates, representing for the most part the local authorities of the Kingdom.

One of the demands put forward was that in future housing legislation **provision should be made for a more effective inter-working with the Small Holdings Act.** In country districts, it was argued, this was essential.

The conference also demanded the creation of **a separate Housing Department** at the Local Government Board. The President of the Local Government Board shortly afterwards announced to Parliament that **such a Department would be formed.**

Several useful points outside the scope of the Government's Housing measure were incorporated in a Bill submitted to Parliament last March by Dr. George Cooper, Sir Walter Foster, and Mr. Will Crooks. The aim was so to amend the Public Health Act and the Local Government Act as **to put an end to the gross neglect by local authorities of many essential sanitary duties.** Much of this neglect is due to the fact that so many of the powers of local bodies are **permissive.** The Bill would have made them **compulsory.** It also proposed to give the County Councils power to call to account those local authorities which neglected their sanitary duties.

In order **to free medical officers and sanitary inspectors from the intimidation of interested parties** on the local bodies, the Bill proposed that half their salaries should be paid by the County Councils.

Another useful provision was to **legalise the position of lady health visitors.** Several municipalities have, in recent years, appointed to their sanitary staff several ladies who act as health visitors in poor neighbourhoods, and it is felt the time has come for giving them an official standing. To the regret of housing reformers in the House of Commons, **this private member's Bill was not reached.**

The past year has been memorable as a year of housing exhibitions. Successful exhibitions of workpeople's cottages laid out on town-planning lines, have been held at Sheffield, Newcastle, and Wolverhampton. The Newcastle exhibition, which comprises some eighty cottages, has been attended by over 25,000 people, and it has created on Tyneside a healthy demand for improved housing conditions.

The fact that the Newcastle Corporation has been able to build and let self-contained cottages on the exhibition site at 6s. 9d. per week, and the Wallsend Co-operative Society at 6s. 6d. per week, has opened the eyes of the inhabitants of the Tyneside towns, since for generations they have been rarely able to get anything cheaper than 7s. flats. Nearly the entire artisan population of Newcastle and Gateshead has hitherto had to find homes in flats.

The Wolverhampton exhibiton is the first stage of a promising town-planning scheme. The exhibition cottages on the estate, which is one of 400 acres on the east side of Wolverhampton, are suggested as models for the entire area which is to be developed on town-planning lines. It is hoped this early example of town-planning will form a standard for other Midland towns.

Arrangements have been completed for a housing exhibition in South Wales during 1909. The housing conditions in the industrial towns and mining villages of South Wales are in many cases of a deplorable character, and it is believed that an exhibition of model cottages in a good centre will shame those responsible into doing something to secure better housing conditions for the working classes.

An area of some 50 acres has been chosen for the exhibition. Some ninety competitors have prepared designs for the planning of a model suburb on this estate, with no more than a dozen houses per acre.

The literature of housing during the year was added to by the publication of "Practical Housing," by Mr. J. S. Nettlefold, Chairman of the Birmingham Corporation Housing Committee. This well-got-up volume of 200 pages, with many useful maps and diagrams, was placed on the market at 1s., and had a good sale. Mr. Nettlefold develops his ideas for transforming slum areas in crowded centres into healthy quarters by enforcing health and clearance regulations against the owners. This is in opposition to the costly practice pursued in the past by many municipalities of clearing the slum areas at the cost of the ratepayers.

GEORGE HAW.

THE POPULATION.

The population of the United Kingdom has nearly doubled since the census of 1821. Here are the figures in thousands:

1821	20,893	1861 .. .	28,292
1831	24,028	1871 .. .	31,484
1841	26,709	1881 .. .	34,884
1851	27,368	1891 .. .	37,732

1901 41,458,721

It is estimated that in 1905 the populatior 43,221,145, and in 1908 that it was 44,538

BIRTHS, DEATHS, MARRIAGES.

The birth rate is decreasing in th United Kingdom from 29·8 per 1,000 in 18 , to 26 per cent. in 1907.

The death rate is also decreasing fr 19 per 1,000 in 1893, to 15·4 in 1907.

The marriage rate is increasing f om 13·9 per 1,000 to 15 per 1,000.

Here are the complete set of figure for the years 1893–1907:

	Births.		Death		Marriag.	
	No.	Pe 1,00	No	Per 1,000	No	Pe 1,000
1893	1,147,764		732,449	19·0	267,548	13·9
1894	1,120,010	·8	653,468	16·8	275,655	14·2
1895	1,154,898	·4	735,244	18·7	279,746	14·3
1896	1,152,144	·0	673,104	16·9	296,089	15·0
1897	1,157,224	9	704,470	17·6	303,086	15·2
1898	1,159,483	7	712,942	17·7	310,071	15·4
1899	1,163,279	5	741,091	18·2	317,623	15·6
1900	1,159,922	2	757,732	18·4	311,251	15·1
1901	1,162,975	0	710,811	17·1	313,351	15·1
1902	1,174,639	0	691,155	16·5	316,612	15·1
1903	1,183,627	·9	667,988	15·8	316,446	14·9
1904	1,181,863	·6	707,278	16·5	313,088	14·6
1905	1,163,535	·9	669,638	15·5	315,090	14·6
1906	1,170,537	6·8	681,293	15·6	325,823	14·9
1907	1,147,988	6·0	678,988	15·4	331,413	15·0

HOUSES IN SCOTLAND.

Scotland had a population in 1901 of 4,472,103 people. Here at a glance we see the style of house, and the proportion of the population that lives in each:

Hous	Persons.	Per Cent.
1 room	492,675	11·02
	1,767,474	39·52
	889,901	19·90
	405,928	9·10
and over ..	914,995	20·46

HOUSES WITHOUT WINDOWS.

At the census of 1861 there were in Scotland no less than 25,959 houses without windows. In 1871 the number was reduced to 6,269, in 1881 to 1,470, in 1891 to 1,147, and in 1901 to 130 only.

CENSUS FOR 1911.

The London County Council desires that at the next decennial census in 1911 the following points should be arranged for:

1. Ascertaining the number of rooms in all tenements, not merely those in tenements of one to four rooms.
2. Ascertaining the place of occupation, not merely whether the person is working at home.
3. Empowering the Registrar-General, at the request and cost of any local authority, to supply statistical information from the census returns.
4. A more satisfactory delimitation of the enumeration districts in London on the basis of the Ordnance survey.
5. The addition of the ages of 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, and 12 to the published age groups.
6. A quinquennial census being taken in the year 1916.

THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER.

The Children's Bill, piloted through the House of Commons in the session of 1908 by Mr. Herbert Samuel, Under-Secretary to the Home Office, received the cordial support of all parties and was hailed throughout the country as the children's charter.

It deals in a most comprehensive manner with the protection of child life and health, and with the treatment of the juvenile offender. A voluminous measure of 119 clauses, it **consolidates 22 existing statutes**, and applies to the whole of the United Kingdom.

Under Part 1 the law relating to the **regulation of baby farms** is strengthened and extended. The second part of the Act is concerned with the various forms of **cruelty and neglect**. Every year the deaths from **overlying** in bed reach a total of 1,600, and those from **unguarded fires** about the same number. In both these cases the Act imposes a penalty for negligence against the parent or other adult responsible, except where drunkenness is proved, in which event the punishment is more severe.

Any person giving **intoxicating liquor to a child under five**, except under medical advice, is liable to a fine not exceeding £3. The growing evil of **juvenile smoking** is dealt with in Part 3 of the Act. A penalty of £2 for a first offence is incurred by any person selling cigarettes or cigarette-papers to any boy or girl under 16. Authorised persons, such as policemen and park-keepers, are empowered to confiscate tobacco found on children and young persons under age, but they are not given the right of search. Automatic machines for the sale of cigarettes, if shown to be extensively used by children, are subject to an order for removal.

When the juvenile smoking clauses were under discussion in the House, Mr. Balfour drew an amusing picture of defiant juveniles putting the police into ridiculous positions, but his banter had no effect on the majority, whose decision was supported by the Lords.

Part 4 of the Act consolidates the **laws relating to industrial schools, and makes important innovations in the treatment of juvenile offenders**. Its provisions are aimed at the abolition of imprisonment for children and the complete separation of the juvenile misdemeanant from the adult criminal. The authorities are empowered to release children under 14 who may be charged with offences, provided sufficient security for their care and good behaviour is forthcoming. No children under 14 are to be sentenced to imprisonment, and no young persons (14 to 16), to penal servitude for any offence, while the imprisonment of young persons is permitted only in the most unruly cases. **Special courts and places of detention** are to be provided for juveniles under trial, and **a children's magistrate is to be appointed for London.**

THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE.

An important commission was appointed "to consider the existing methods of dealing with idiots and epileptics and with imbeciles, feeble-minded or defective persons not certified under the Lunacy laws," and to inquire into the expediency of amending "the constitution, jurisdiction and working of the Commission in Lunacy and of other Lunacy authorities in England and Wales, or adopting some other system of supervising the care of lunatics and mental defectives."

The reports of the medical investigators indicate evils of extreme gravity which require the speediest attention. They refer chiefly to **feeble-minded persons connected with no institutions and living in the local conditions and surroundings in which they have been brought up. Many of them, no doubt, remain with their families, and are kindly treated. But very many are untrained and uncared for.** Leading irregular and purposeless lives, they become utterly undisciplined and fall into vice and crime. And, except so far as the special classes of the local education authorities may have, in a few places, met the need in some degree, **there is no public organisation to train them according to their ability**, and to control and supervise them, especially in the early years of life, when most can be done to aid them effectually.

This evidence suggests for consideration, as a main issue, how far it is possible to create a system by which these mentally defective persons could, at an early age, be brought into touch with some friendly authority, trained, and, as far as need be, supervised during their lives, in co-operation with their relations, when that is to their advantage, or, when it is desirable, detained and treated in some measure as the wards of the State.

The evidence also suggests that, as so many authorities are brought into contact with these persons—the Poor Law, prisons, schools, and the like—in some way a settled plan of action should be established between the various agencies, so that some one supervising authority should see that they did not pass from one authority or institution to another, helped or detained a little at each, but permanently cared for by none. The reports of the medical investigators, indeed, raise in a few words some of the principal questions which we have to determine (write the Commissioners).

There may be estimated to be in the whole population (32,527,843) 149,628 mentally defective persons, or ·46 per cent., apart from certified lunatics. It may be estimated that of this total 66,509, or 44·45 per cent., require provision. The total number of mentally defective persons, including certified lunatics, may be estimated to be 271,607, or ·83 per cent. of the population.

CREMATIONS.

In 1907 the number of cremations in the United Kingdom was 706, namely: At Woking, 108; Manchester, 96; Glasgow, 30; Liverpool, 34; Hull, 29; Darlington, 8; Leicester, 13; Golder's Green, 290; Birmingham, 33; Leeds, 16; Sheffield, 18; Ilford, 18; and Bradford, 13. The practice of cremation in this country, practically began in 1885 with three cremations at Woking.

THE CASE FOR TARIFF REFORM.

FOUR PROBLEMS OF STATESMANSHIP.

Here is the case for Tariff Reform, as stated by the Tariff Reform League:

It was on May 15th, 1903, that Mr. Chamberlain unfurled the banner of Tariff Reform in an epoch-making speech at Birmingham, and announced his intention of devoting the remainder of his life to carrying into effect the doctrine which he then promulgated.

In this remarkable speech **Mr. Chamberlain unfolded to his constituents and the country the dream of a United Empire,** based not merely upon sentiment, but on mutual commercial interests, which had haunted him for years. The immediate result was the beginning of the great controversial war which has raged with increasing intensity ever since. While the malignity of political adversaries and the economic prejudices of some political friends united in a strong alliance against the new doctrines, leaders of industry and commercial men of all kinds flocked to Mr. Chamberlain's side from every quarter.

Resolutions were passed by chambers of commerce and other public bodies endorsing the new policy by large majorities. The working-classes, haunted by the ever imminent spectre of unemployment, turned eagerly to a message which heralded the dawn of a new hope. And, not less significant, the vast majority of the organs of public opinion throughout the country extended an enthusiastic welcome to a scheme which promised to give reality at last to the vague visions of Imperial federation that had for years captivated the imaginations of patriotic men.

Not only in the country but in Parliament Mr. Chamberlain's policy excited the keenest interest. Mr. Balfour—then Prime Minister—made no secret of the sympathy he felt with Mr. Chamberlain's scheme, though he fully admitted the difficulty of carrying it into effect.

A powerful organisation, **the Tariff Reform League,** was formed in July, 1903, with the object of advocating "the employment of the tariff with a view to its use to consolidate and develop the resources of the Empire, and to defend the industries of the United Kingdom." The whole of the United Kingdom—with the exception of Birmingham and district, for which a separate organisation exists—lies within the scope of the League, and the burden of the propaganda work which has been zealously carried on during the last five years has been borne chiefly by it.

The President of the League is the Duke of Sutherland, K.G., and the vice-presidents, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, M.P., Mr. Austen Chamberlain, M.P., Mr. A. Bonar Law, M.P., and Mr. C. Arthur Pearson; the Duke of Westminster is chairman of the Council, Viscount Ridley is chairman of the executive committee, and Mr. E. A. Goulding, M.P., is chairman of the organisation committee. The League comprises a large number of federations and county branches, and nearly 1,000 subsidiary branches, whose doings are recorded in "Monthly Notes on Tariff Reform," published by the League.

The General Election of 1906, although it appeared to give a temporary set-back to the movement, did not discourage its supporters. They realised, as has since been admitted by at least two Liberal Cabinet Ministers, that Tariff Reform was not the main issue upon which the election was fought. As Mr. Lloyd-George put it: "At the last General Election Tariff Reform was kept in the backyard of the warehouse; at the next election the window will be dressed with it."

The phenomenal progress made by the movement since 1906 shows that it was far from being killed, as many Free Traders fondly imagined, at the last General Election. A much more serious blow befell the cause in the summer of 1907, when its founder and most eloquent advocate, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, was stricken with serious illness, which has ever since prevented him from taking an active part in propaganda work. But even his enforced withdrawal from active political life has not had a retarding effect upon the movement. Nothing, in fact, could more clearly show how deep-rooted it is in the hearts and minds of the people than its continued and even accelerated progress in the face of so great a calamity.

We will now endeavour to give an outline of the leading principles and objects of the Tariff Reform policy, as set forth in the Introduction to the Speakers' Handbook, published by the League.

Tariff Reform, it is there stated, does not raise any question as to the theoretic advantages or disadvantages of either Free Trade or Protection. It does raise a question of practical statesmanship, **the question whether or not, in a world of tariffs, a world more and more governed by tariff considerations, this country is to adopt that form of tariff best calculated to raise revenue, to safeguard national industries against foreign state-aided competition, and to afford a means of effective negotiation with other countries for the purpose of extending and developing British trade within and without the Empire.**

Our existing tariff fails to secure these objects. It is inadequate to raise the revenue required by this country for legitimate and necessary expenditure on further agricultural, educational and social reforms, military and naval defence, and other objects of national and Imperial importance. As Mr. Balfour has well said: **"Some revision of our fiscal system, and some broadening of the basis of taxation, would be absolutely inevitable if we were the only commercial nation in the world, and if we had not got a single colony."** (Speech at Hull, February 1st, 1907.)

As it cannot produce the revenue we urgently require, so also **our present tariff fails to secure our vitally important national industries against bounty-fed and state-aided competition by foreign protected countries,** competition which restricts production in this country, and consequently diminishes the employment and lowers the wages of British working men. Again, our present tariff, by placing import duties on such things only as are not produced in this country, and admitting duty free anything and everything which is, or can be, produced in this country, fails to afford us the

slightest power of securing by tariff negotiation better terms for British trade in foreign and Colonial markets.

These considerations show that **Tariff Reform raises four great problems of practical statesmanship**—problems which (to quote Mr. Balfour again) are logically separate, but must be connected in view in one focus if we are to judge of the true character and proportions of the question with which we have to deal.

We have, first, **the revenue problem,** the problem of how best to meet the large and necessarily increasing expenditure demanded by our national and Imperial responsibilities. We have, secondly, **the problem of the home market,** the problem of safe-guarding our great productive industries, and the employment and wages of British working-men dependent upon them. Thirdly, we have **the problem of foreign markets,** the question how we are to obtain the bargaining power without which it is impossible for us to secure better terms of entry for British goods into tariff protected foreign countries. Lastly, and most important of all, we have **the problem of our Colonial markets,** the question how we are to secure and extend our trade with these new and rapidly developing Britains beyond the sea, already the best markets for British manufactures, and the future possibilities of which it is almost impossible to over-estimate.

Let us consider these four problems in the order in which we have stated them.

1.—THE REVENUE PROBLEM.

The Budgets of the present Government have shown that the present normal requirements of this country cannot be properly met from our

under the head of Civil Services has grown from £19,900,000 in 1895-6 to £30,510,000 in 1908-9. In the same period our expenditure on the Army and Navy has risen from £38,000,000 to £59,775,000; and the National Debt Services now stand at £28,000,000, as compared with £25,000,000.

On the revenue side, in every branch of indirect taxation the rates levied are, by common consent, so high that they cannot be raised without affecting the total consumption. As regards indirect taxation, the income-tax already stands at so high a figure as to leave little room for expansion in times of national emergency; while the estate duties have been raised to what is practically their utmost limit. As regards the proposed taxation of site values, it is becoming generally agreed that the taxation of site values belongs rather to the domain of municipal finance than national taxation. The advantage of this measure to the Imperial Exchequer would therefore depend on the extent to which grants in aid could be reduced.

2.—THE HOME MARKET PROBLEM.

The question is: How are we to safeguard our great producing industries, which give employment and wages to our working men, and upon which our very existence as an industrial nation depends, against the state-aided competition of protected nations? A very strong and general demand has arisen from the producing classes of this country that something should be done to remedy the unfair conditions of competition under which they have to carry on their work under our present fiscal system. Such a remedy can only be found in Tariff Reform. Without it our industrial position must inevitably decline from bad to worse, and with the weakening of our industrial position at home must go hand in hand the weakening of our commercial position abroad. "A strong home market," as Mr. Carnegie has told us (and we can quote no more experienced authority), "is the best weapon for conquering foreign markets." It follows that a weak home market must be the worst possible handicap in the international struggle for commercial supremacy. And this leads us to the third great problem of Tariff Reform.

3.—THE PROBLEM OF FOREIGN MARKETS.

A survey of our existing trade with foreign protected markets will show that little is to be hoped for from them. It is the deliberate policy of these countries to preserve their own home markets for the benefit of their own industrialists. To this end they have one and all adopted more or less highly protective tariffs for the express purpose of excluding the manufactured goods of other countries, particularly our own, and the tendency is to increase the protective character of these tariffs rather than diminish it.

We cannot, therefore, look to foreign protected markets for extension of our export trade. Can we look to the so-called "neutral markets," such as China, Argentina, or South America generally? To a certain extent, doubtless, and for some time to come, we can. Are we, however, maintaining our relative position as compared with our great exporting rivals in these neutral markets?

From a return issued by the Board of Trade on May 7th, 1906, and re-issued with up-to-date figures in September, 1907, we know that our increase in exports to China, Argentina, and all South America during the period 1887-1906, has been considerably less both in amount and percentage than the increase in exports to those markets from either Germany or the United States. It is thus conclusively demonstrated that we are losing our relative position even in neutral markets, and this notwithstanding the fact that, as Mr. Lloyd-George himself declares, "we go there on equal terms" with any other country.

We cannot, therefore, look even to neutral markets for that future expansion of our export trade which the necessities of our position demand. It is clear that in one direction, and one direction only can we look for such expansion, and we may turn now to a consideration of the remaining great problem of Tariff Reform.

4.—THE PROBLEM OF COLONIAL MARKETS.

We must regard this problem from two points of view. First, from that of our interests as a small manufacturing island; and, second, from the Imperial standpoint. Already the Colonial markets buy from us, per head of their population, in pounds, where

foreign and neutral markets buy in shillings. Not only so, but they buy *almost exclusively* our fully finished manufactured goods; goods that is, which provide the largest amount, and the best kind, of employment for the working people of this country. But we have not only to look at what these Colonial markets of ours do now. We have to look at what they are capable of doing in the future. As Mr. Balfour has well said: "In our great Colonies we have to look not at the population as it is now, not at the wealth-producing capacity as we see it at the present moment. We must look with the eyes of prophets to what these great self-governing communities are to become in the lifetime of some of us now living." It is clear, then, that in the interests of the United Kingdom alone, even were there no other interests at stake, our best policy lies in strengthening to the utmost of our power the hold we have upon the Colonial markets.

The question then arises: How is this to be done unless by means of reciprocity in Preference, a policy involving on our part a re-arrangement of our present tariff system—in a word, Tariff Reform? To this question opponents of Tariff Reform have only one answer. "Why not Free Trade within the Empire?" they say. But those who raise this cry refuse to look facts in the face. As Sir Wilfrid Laurier explained at the Imperial Conference of 1907, Free Trade within the Empire is ruled out, for every one of the Colonies, by revenue considerations.

Free Trade within the Empire, then, is, for the present at least, an unattainable ideal. If it is ever to be reached, it can only be when the Colonies arrive at a stage of development considerably nearer our own than that they at present occupy. What, then, is the alternative? The Colonies themselves have shown us. One and all, beginning with Canada, and ending with the Australian Commonwealth, they have given us and each other a preferential advantage over foreign countries in the tariffs they have been obliged to adopt in their own national interests. One and all they have asked us at repeated Colonial Conferences to complete the circle by granting them some reciprocal preference in any tariff we see fit to adopt in our national interest.

If we continue to refuse their request, the Colonies will be driven (and are even now being driven), by the necessities of their own economic development, to look to other countries for the reciprocity which we deny them—a course which must inevitably diminish the value of the preferences now enjoyed by us.

It will be obvious from all this that the choice offered us in the Fiscal Question is not whether we shall stay where we are or press forward. We cannot stay where we are. So far as our Colonies are concerned, it is proved to demonstration that "we must either come closer together, or we shall inevitably drift apart." So far as our trade is concerned, the simple fact is equally clear that we can only keep what we have by adding to it what stands within our reach, and pressing forward to that which lies beyond. We cannot stand still. Both as a nation and as an Empire, we must go either forward or backward. Which is it to be?

Such is the momentous and supremely urgent question of practical statesmanship raised by the policy of Tariff Reform. The answer which will be ultimately given to it by the British people can hardly be a matter of doubt.

UNITED STATES TARIFFS.

The opinions of the two great political parties in the United States on the problems of the tariff are set out in the words of their own "platforms" below:

The Republicans say: "The Republican party declares unequivocally for a revision of the tariff by a special session of Congress immediately following the inauguration of the next President, and commends the steps already taken to this end in the work assigned to the appropriate committees of Congress which are now investigating the operation and effect of existing schedules. In all tariff legislation the true principle of protection is best maintained by the imposition of such duties as will equal the difference between the cost of production at home and abroad, together with a reasonable profit to American industries.

"We favour the establishment of maximum and minimum rates to be administered by the President under limitations fixed in the law, the maximum to be available to meet discriminations by foreign countries against American goods entering their markets, and the minimum to represent the normal measure of protection at home; the aim and purpose of the Republican policy being not only to preserve, without excessive duties, that security against foreign competition to which American manufacturers, farmers and producers are entitled, but also to maintain the high standard of living of the wage-earners f this country, who are the most direct be aries of the protective system."

The Democrats say: "We welcome the belated promise of tariff reform now offered by the Republican party in tardy recognition of the righteousness of the Democratic position on this question; but the people cannot safely entrust the execution of this important work to a party which is so deeply obligated to the highly protected interests as is the Republican party. We call attention to the significant fact that the promised relief was postponed until after the coming election—an election to succeed in which the Republican party must have the same support from the beneficiaries of the high protective tariff as it has always heretofore received from them; and to the further fact that during years of uninterrupted power, no action whatever has been taken by the Republican Congress to correct the admittedly existing tariff iniquities.

"We favour immediate revision of the tariff by the reduction of import duties. Articles entering into competition with trust-controlled products should be placed upon the free list, and material reductions should be made in the tariff upon the necessities of life, especially upon articles competing with such American manufactures as are sold abroad more cheaply than at home; and graduate reductions should be made in such other schedules as may be necessary to restore the tariff to a revenue basis.

THE CASE AGAINST "TARIFF REFORM."

TARIFF REFORM AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

By L. G. CHIOZZA MONEY, M.P.

"Tariff Reformers" have now very largely ceased to make any but brief references to the taxation of the people's food in order to create a Colonial "Preference." They are relying upon the allegation that **Protection is a remedy for unemployment, and the undoubted existence of this terrible social evil in an aggravated form in the winter of 1908-9 is of the greatest assistance to those who have a quack remedy to offer.**

The Free Trader, who never pretends that the absence of Protective duties is in itself a cure for unemployment, is at a tactical disadvantage. He cannot imitate the methods of his opponents, and he can only take every possible opportunity of exposing **the hollowness of the pretence that Protection means "work for all."**

A word, in the first place, of economic theory. **Imports, whether of goods or service, are paid for by exports, whether of goods or services.** That being the case, it cannot be true that imports are a loss of work to us. British work pays for foreign or Colonial work in our external trade. The Tariff Reformer who does not believe this is referred to two conclusive facts. The first is that, **as we have no gold or silver mines, we cannot pay for imports in cash.** Indeed, on balance, we largely import gold and silver every year. Thus, in the last ten years, our imports and exports of goods have been :

Imports	£5,441,000,000
Exports	£3,792,000,000
Excess of Imports	£1,649,000,000

So far from the excess of imports being paid for in money, we actually imported in the same ten years (1898–1907), £47,400,000 worth more of gold and silver than we exported.

Again, the Inland Revenue Commissioners show in their 51st Report (Cd. 4226) that **our foreign and Colonial investments are constantly increasing,** the interest received gaining and not falling year by year. Therefore, we do not sell out securities to pay for our imports.

How, then, is the excess of imports of goods paid for? The answer is: By exports of another kind, the "**invisible exports**" as **they are sometimes called, or exports of services.** Thus, **our magnificent mercantile marine, which we own through Free Trade, and which forms more than one-half of the whole world's ocean shipping, brings us in £90,000,000** or so of earnings every year. **Our foreign and Colonial investments bring us in about £100,000,000 a year more.** So far from paying for imports in money, or selling our securities, we every year increase our lien upon the world.

In the first place, then, as **wages are not exported,** it is not true that imports cause unemployment.

Now let us survey the chief factors of the subject.

The British workman is told, although not so often as was the case a few years ago, that **if he will consent to the taxation of bread, meat, and dairy produce, the Colonies will lower their duties and take more of our goods, thus causing more employment.** The truth is that **the Colonial Preference is never intended to admit more British goods.** The "principle" of the Preference may be gathered from the resolution on the subject passed by the **Canadian Manufacturers' Association** in August, 1902. It read :

"That while such tariff should be primarily framed for Canadian interests, it should nevertheless give substantial preference to the Mother Country, and also to any other part of the British Empire with which reciprocal preferential trade can be arranged to mutual advantage, **recognising always that the minimum tariff must afford adequate protection to all Canadian producers.**"

The Colonial manufacturer is thus determined that the minimum or preferential duty shall be high enough to protect him.

That being the case, what does it matter to us if the duty on foreign goods is higher than the high minimum? It was of this sham preference that Mr. Chamberlain, at the Colonial Conference of 1902, said: "We cannot bargain with you for it; we cannot pay for it unless you go much further and enable us to enter your home market on terms of greater equality."

In the six years **that have elapsed, the Canadians, instead of "going further," have whittled away the Preference which Mr. Chamberlain** criticised so severely.

And it is not only that the British workman has nothing to hope from the Preference. We have something to fear from it, and that is **the taxation of raw materials.** Our imports of raw materials in 1906 were :

From Foreign Countries ..	£147,900,000
" British Possessions	63,600,000
Total	£211,500,000

So that 70 per cent. of our supplies, bought in the best markets, comes from foreign sources. The danger is that a call for a "Preference" on raw materials may easily arise if we embark on the Preference scheme. For if it is necessary to provide preferential duties in order to bind the Empire together, how are we to provide a "tie of interest" for the Colonists who send us raw materials **unless we tax foreign material?** South Africa does not export food at all, and must be left out of the Preference scheme unless we tax foreign wool and copper.

Once adopt Protection, **and no commodity is safe from taxation, for every producer would claim a duty for his produce.** Tariff "Reformers" always say **they will not tax raw**

materials, but 1908 saw **an agitation for a big hop duty.** The hop **is** a raw material of the brewing industry. Again, we have **already** had claims for duties on tin and slates, nd both these articles are important raw materials.

It should not be overlooked, in passing, that the declaration of Tariff "Reformers" that they will not tax raw materials is strangely inconsistent with their allegation that our import duties would be paid by the foreign exporters. If it is possible to tax the foreigner we ought certainly to tax foreign raw materials. **Therefore, the Tariff Reformer's declaration that he will never tax raw materials is an admission that the home consumer pays import duties,** as of course he does.

But, again, **nearly all our imports of manufactures, alleged to cause unemployment, are really raw materials of industry.** Leather, for example, is the raw material of boots, bags, saddles, &c., and to tax it would throw thousands out of work. Paper, again, is the raw material of the printer and the publisher, and to tax it would be to throw printers and others out of work. Consideration of such concrete cases will show **how absurd is the idea that to tax imports makes work.** As the following table shows, **only 9 per cent. of our imports consists of manufactures ready for consumption:**

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM FOR HOME CONSUMPTION IN 1907.

	£	cent
Food and Fodder ..	231,000,000	42
Materials of Industry		
(1) Raw or Crude ..	189,000,000	48
(2) Partly or wholly manufactured ..	78,000,000	
Manufactures ready for Consumption:		
(1) Necessaries ..	25,000,000	9
(2) Luxuries ..	25,000,000	
Miscellaneous . ..	6,000,000	1
	£554,000,000	100

Moreover, if it is good to keep out imports, then Protection signally fails to keep them out, as the following figures show:

MANUFACTURED ARTICLES IMPORTED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION BY THE THREE LEADING COMMERCIAL COUNTRIES.

United States of America, 1907 (from American Trade Returns)	£133,000,000
United Kingdom, 1907 (from Board of Trade Returns) ..	128,000,000
German Empire, 1906 (from Board of Trade analysis) ..	97,000,000

If our Tariff Reformers really believe that it is good to keep out imports they should prohibit them altogether. Mr. Chamberlain's trumpery 10 per cent. duty would only touch a tiny fraction of them.

And if Protection makes work, why are Colonial manufactures to come in untaxed? Last year the Colonies sent us £21,000,000 of manufactures, which, if Protection is true, means unemployment here.

Here is an interesting passage from a letter written by Mr. Ross, the Premier of Ontario, after reading Mr. Chamberlain's Glasgow speech outlining his programme:

"When we remember that Great Britain imports 500,000,000 dollars worth of manufactured goods, it will be seen that the margin for displacement of foreign manufactures by Canadian manufactures is very large, and with a Preference of 10 per cent. in favour of the Colonies, Mr. Chamberlain's proposals are most encouraging. There are doubtless many lines in which the produce of Canadian factories would very soon displace the produce of American factories if this Preference were put into operation. His scheme would, therefore, not be a displacement of British manufactures in the home market, but a substitution of Canadian for foreign manufactures—a truly patriotic and Imperial policy."

That foreign competition is not the real cause of unemployment can easily be shown. The majority of our trades are unaffected by foreign competition. Thus, there are no imports of houses, or of quartern loaves, or, practically, of cotton goods, or of bricks. Yet in each of these four trades unemployment occurs, in spite of "no imports." **There are no ship imports, yet unemployment is often very grave in the industry.** So it is with other trades. The simple fact of the case is that unemployment is a necessary concomitant of competitive industry, and neither Free Trade nor Protection can cure it. The latter, indeed, can only make it graver.

Reference to foreign conditions shows that unemployment is often much more severe in Tariff "Reformed" nations than it is here. At the United States census of 1890, 15·1 per cent. were unemployed; at the census of 1900, 22·3 per cent. were unemployed, much of the unemployment being from lack of work.

Here is some striking evidence taken from the Official Bulletin of the Labour Department of New York State:

NEW YORK STATE: UNEMPLOYMENT AMONGST TRADE UNIONISTS, 1908.

Last Day of	No. of Trade Unions.	No. of Members Reported on.	No. of Idle Members.	Per Cent. Idle.
January	192	96,782	35,329	36·9
February	192	95,696	35,924	37·5
March .	192	94,542	35,436	37·5
April .	192	94,148	35,956	33·9
May .	192	93,532	30,152	32·2
June ..	192	92,814	28,013	30·2

By far the greater part of the idleness, the report says, is due to lack of work.

In the first three months of 1908, one in four of the trade unionists of New York State was out of work continuously from January 1st to March 31st. Such a condition of things is unknown in Free Trade Britain.

It is not true that unemployment has increased in the United Kingdom under Free Trade. In the second Fiscal Bluebook the Board of Trade say:

"The average level of unemployment during the past four years has been almost exactly the same as the average of the preceding forty years."

THE LICENSING BILL.

MR. ASQUITH'S AND MR. BALFOUR'S ARGUMENTS.

Here are some arguments used by Mr. Asquith in favour of the Licensing Bill, and by Mr. Balfour against it.

Mr. Asquith, on October 10th, 1908, said:

"We had, in introducing the Bill, two main objects. The first was the immediate, progressive, compulsory, and uniform reduction in licences for the sale of intoxicating drinks.

"I lay stress opon all these epithets. Unless they are all satisfied by your legislation, you are certain to find there will be a loophole of escape, and you will not attain the desired result. Take the Act of 1904. From recent declarations of Mr. Balfour you might be tempted to think that that Act, which imposed a particular machinery for the reduction of licences, did so as a mere interesting and audacious experiment in the sphere of economic or social speculation. Because Mr. Balfour tells you when you come to examine the facts that the reduction in the number of licences and the reduction in the amount of drink consumed have absolutely no relation the one to the other, at least no demonstrable relation.

"It had another object, and one which I, for my part, regard as one of equal even if not of higher importance, and that is the **recovery for the community of domination over the property in the monopoly value which the community has created**, and here, of course, we are met by the only consistent and logical opponents of the Bill, and I am glad to meet them on that ground, with an absolute denial of the State's right to do anything unless it is prepared to buy out the trade on the footing of the purchase of the freehold on compulsory terms.

"Now, let me just recapitulate to you the propositions which we Liberals as supporters of the Bill assert in regard to this matter, and I want to see which of them will be denied, and by what ground of argument or of fact. In the first place, take the simplest of all propositions—the licence granted to a public-house is in terms a licence for a year, and for a year only. In the second place, as the result of a series, an unbroken series, of uniform decisions by the Courts of law, which have gone on certainly for two generations, the discretion of justices is as complete in points of law in regard to the renewal of an existing licence as it is in regard to the grant of a new one. In the third place, a licence once granted, it is, so long as it exists, in law and in fact created a monopoly for the benefit of the person who holds it. He is freed pro tanto from effective competition. He possesses a privilege which no ordinary trader possesses, a privilege guaranteed by the State, and in which no other citizen can disturb him.

"I come to the fourth. People talk of the right of renewal. Was it ever anything more—can anyone show it was ever anything more—than speculative expectation, defeasible, and often, in fact, defeated?

"Now, I have asked over and over again in the House of Commons, and so have my friends, and we have never got an answer to the question—if a licence with the expectation of renewal, or what you call a right of renewal, is a property, if, in other words, it cannot be taken from a man, except upon proof of misconduct, without compensation, why is that compensation not payable in this case, as it is in every other case where the State resumes private property for the public interest? Why is that compensation payable out of funds provided by themselves? What is the answer?

"When the process is over, you will have emancipated the community from a thraldom under which it has long groaned, you will have got at last what you ought to have got long ago if you had not parted with it through inadvertence and lethargy, you will have given to the local community the power of saying for itself on what terms and to what extent this business shall be carried on."

Mr. Balfour, speaking in the Albert Hall (June 25th, 1908) on the Licensing Bill, said:

"**It may be quite true that a licence-holder has not a freehold in his licence.** I think it is true. But is there no property except freehold property? What folly is this? Is not that property which, by the estimates of those engaged in the trade, is worth some £150,000,000 or more, and which those who are opposed to the trade admit to be worth £100,000,000? Is not that property? Is that which is worth £100,000,000 on the very face of it property? The very statement means that it is property. That which is worth £100,000,000 is worth £100,000,000 of property. No arguments and no refinements can get over that plain and patent fact. This property can be devised, and has constantly been devised, by will. It is this property which a man leaves to support his wife and his family. On this property hundreds of thousands of pounds have been lent and borrowed. On this property, up to its very full value, the State has levied duties ever since the succession duties in any form existed. And are you going to turn round now and say that property, which was regarded as property when the State was taxing it, is not to be regarded as property when the State is going to take it away? Can that by any human being be regarded as an exhibition of national honesty?"

EVILS OF DRINK.

"I think our opponents are profoundly mistaken," added Mr. Balfour; "but I recognise that there is behind them, at all events, a great body of honest opinion, of strong feeling; and I do not wonder at it, for this reason—that **the evils of drink come home too bitterly to the hearts and consciences of all classes of the community.** There is probably not a man nor a woman here—there is certainly not a man nor a woman here—who has not had painful opportunities of seeing all the tragedies, the domestic tragedies, the ruin of home life, the destruction of a great and honourable career, the misery brought upon individuals and families by the reckless use and the misuse of alcoholic beverages. That is true, painfully true; and I wish to judge with no harsh judgment those who, misled by this great and ever-present tragedy, are willing to grasp at even the most reckless methods by which it is alleged that that evil can be diminished."

CHANGES IN THE LICENSING BILL.

* On page 62 we give the main provisions of the Licensing Bill as it was introduced.

The Bill passed through the Committee stage in November, 1908, with its main principles relating to the reduction of licences, compensation, time-limit, and resumption of public control substantially unchanged.

Under Clause 1 one on-licence will be left in rural areas to every 400 inhabitants and one to every 1,000 in towns. It is estimated that during the reduction period of fourteen years the number of on-licences, now standing at 95,700, will be reduced by about 32,000. The clause was modified by extending special consideration to the 177 new licences granted since the Act of 1904, and by the insertion of a provision which, taken in connection with Clause 2, will establish local option in the metropolitan boroughs.

By adding to Clause 3 a provision that, for the seven years following the expiration of the fourteen years, an old licence when re-granted should not be required to surrender its monopoly value, the time-limit has practically been extended to twenty-one years. This does not apply to off-licences. Under this clause, also, a majority of two-thirds is required for the carrying into effect of a local option resolution fourteen years hence.

Under Clause 8 it was provided that when considering what licences should be extinguished, the Commission should hear representations from interested persons. Clause 10 was amended by providing for compensation to the licence-holder fixed at one year's net profits as determined by income-tax.

The Sunday closing clause (18) was extended to London, an extra hour being allowed, making four in all. Restaurants were exempted in the case of "bona-fide meals." The paragraph in Clause 20, which prohibits the employment of barmaids, was withdrawn. That relating to closing on Parliamentary polling-days was made absolute.

A new definition inserted in Clause 24 lays down that monopoly value shall be taken to be the sum by which the value of the licensed premises (as estimated for income-tax purposes) exceeds the value of the premises when not licensed.

The clauses (36-42) relating to clubs were altered by giving the local Court of summary jurisdiction, instead of the licensing justices, the power to decide whether or not a club should be licensed, by inserting a provision designed to prevent the creation of tied clubs, and by making members of the committee, instead of the secretary, liable for permitting drunkenness or the illegal sale of liquor. Police inspection is allowed only on the written authority of a justice of the peace.

LOCAL OPTION.

A Scottish Local Option Bill was read a second time in the Commons, and referred to a Committee of the whole House on May 22nd, 1908.

This Bill provides that on the receipt of a requisition signed by not less than one-tenth of the electors in any area, the local authority shall cause a poll to be taken of the electors in that area. The questions to be submitted shall be the adoption of (a) a prohibitory resolution; (b) a limiting resolution; or (c) a resolution that no change be made; but an elector shall not be entitled to vote for more than one of such resolutions.

A simple majority will be sufficient to carry either (a) or (b). If (a) is not carried, the votes given for it shall be added to those given to (b). When a poll has once been taken in any area, no further poll may be taken for three years. It may then be taken: (a) if a prohibitory resolution is in force for repealing the same; (b) if a limiting resolution is in force for a further limiting resolution or for a prohibitory resolution; and (c) if a no change resolution is in force then for a prohibitory resolution or for a limiting resolution.

HIGH LICENCES.

It is believed that the Chancellor of the Exchequer is in favour of a system of high licences, by which the licences would bear some relation to the value of the trade of the house. The "Spectator" says that the refusal of this country to accept the high-licence system is utterly unreasonable. We are missing a source of revenue of many millions a year.

Messrs. Rowntree and Sherwell say:

"While we are spending time and effort and money, and incurring great risks in our endeavour to secure a reduction of licences, we could easily effect a greater reduction than the most ardent temperance reformer anticipates by a simple and just revision of our licence duties.

"Altogether there are 1,500 hotels in England and Wales which pay only £20 per annum licence duty, and their rateable value varies from £50 to £21,900.

"Of the public-houses in England, 75 per cent. pay a licence duty of from £4 10s. to £25, and only 25 per cent. pay a duty exceeding £25. The scale abounds in anomalies—e.g.: 100 houses rated at £16 pay in licence duty £800; 10 houses rated at £160 pay in licence duty £300; and 1 house rated at £1,600 pays in licence duty £60.

"Against this put the licence duty imposed in New England cities: In 21 of these the average licence duty is £268, or ten times the average of the duty in the United Kingdom.

"From 30,269 public-houses in 164 towns in Great Britain we received a total licence revenue of £815,771.

"Were our licence duties graded on the same basis per 1,000 of the population as those which are levied in similar towns in the United States, we should receive an annual revenue from these urban public-houses of £7,875,779.

"The annual proceeds of the licence duties in London are £205,000.

"In New York, with half London's population, the proceeds are £1,421,000."

THE DRINK PROBLEM.

DRINK BILL: MODEL PUBLIC-HOUSES.

OUR DRINK BILL.

Dr. Dawson Burns, in his annual letter to the "Times," gives the facts with regard to our Drink Bill for 1907.

The drink bill of the United Kingdom for 1907 was both greater and less than that of 1906. The total expenditure in each year respectively was (1906) £166,425,911, and (1907) £167,016,200. These figures show an increased expenditure of £590,289. On spirits the increase was £973,408, and on wine £11,762, a total of £985,170, but a decrease on beer of £394,881 gave a net increase of £590,289. The estimated increase of population was 441,110, which, on the per head expenditure of 1906, would increase the expenditure by £1,706,220; but as the actual increase was only £590,289, there was a relative decrease of £1,113,931.

Hence the average per head expenditure of £3 16s. 3d. in 1906 fell in 1907 to £3 15s. 9d. The average varies in the three countries. In England it is £3 19s. per head, in Scotland £3 3s. 1d., in Ireland £3 3s 10d.

The mischief-making constituent in all fermented and distilled liquors is the alcohol present in various proportions. The average percentages may be estimated as 57 in ardent spirits, 15 in wines, and 5 per cent. in beer. In England the average per head consumption of alcohol is 2·1 gals., in Scotland 1·4 gals., and in Ireland 1·6.

A MODEL PUBLIC-HOUSE.

A model public-house has been outlined in a Bill introduced into the House of Lords by Lord Lamington, and supported by the "True Temperance Association" (1, Parliament Chambers, S.W.).

The Bill runs thus:

A Bill to facilitate the provision of accommodation for supplying food, and of other improvements in connection with premises licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors by retail.

Be it enacted:

1. In exercising powers with respect to granting permission for structural alterations upon or extensions to premises licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors by retail, the licensing justices shall not do so in such manner as to interfere with:

(a) The provision of accommodation for the supply of tea, coffee, cocoa, or food;

(b) the making of such premises, or any part thereof, more open, airy, well ventilated, or clean;

(c) the improvement or enlargement of the sanitary accommodation;

(d) The substitution of the provisions of chairs and tables either wholly or partly in lieu of existing bar accommodation;

(e) the provision of games, newspapers, music, or gardens, or any other means of reasonable recreation.

2. This Act may be cited as the Public-houses (Extension of Facilities) Act, 1908.

THE GOTHENBURG SYSTEM.

Under the Gothenburg system, which has "practically superseded all other licensing systems in the towns of Norway and Sweden," the stimulus of private profit in pushing retail sales of spirits is eliminated. Surplus profits are divided between the municipality and the State in various proportions. In a pamphlet by Messrs. Hogge & Scott, issued by the Temperance Legislation League, it is stated that in Norway the greater part of the surplus profit—namely, 65 per cent.—is earmarked for the State Exchequer. Four-sevenths of that portion of the profit which is allocated for local purposes is to be expended on objects of public utility not being chargeable on any rate but operating as counter-attractions to the public-house.

By a new Act in Sweden (1907) the National Exchequer allocates the whole of the surplus profit in this way:

1 per cent. retained by the Exchequer to cover expenses.

20 per cent. of the profits of each community is paid to the corporation or municipality.

12 per cent. to the Agricultural Society.

67 per cent. to the communes of Sweden, including those in which the traffic is prohibited, in proportion to the population.

INEBRIATES.

There are eleven reformatories certified and licensed under the Inebriates Acts. 493 persons sentenced to detention under the Inebriates Acts were admitted during the year, and of that number 65 were men and 428 women. This number was markedly in excess of the number of any previous year, and this increase, the inspector thinks, is due to the much greater number of women dealt with under Section 2 of the Act for drunkenness and disorder in the streets. The number of men committed under the same section was smaller than it had been for three years past. The main cause of the marked decrease in the number of male admissions was want of accommodation. Had it been possible to receive all cases the total of admissions would have been greatly in excess of those of previous years.

Under Section 1 of the 1898 Act (under which any habitual drunkard who is convicted on indictment of an offence punishable with imprisonment or penal servitude may be committed to an inebriate reformatory if the Court is satisfied that the offence was committed under the influence of drink, or that drunkenness was a contributory cause of the offence) 36 persons were sent to reformatories during the year, and a total of 400 have been so committed since the Act of 1898 came into operation.

Under Section 2, 676 persons were sentenced to reformatory detention during the nine years for disorderly conduct in addition to drunkenness, 170 for simple drunkenness in public places, and 9 for other offences connected with drunkenness.

THE CRIME OF THE COUNTRY.

DECREASING CRIME AND INCREASING PROSPERITY.

The statistics of persons tried for indictable offences have been generally accepted as the best index to the fluctuation of crime. In 1906 these numbered 59,079, as against an average for 1902–6 of 59,203. This gives an average of 171 per 100,000 of the population.

The latest year for which the criminal statistics of England and Wales have been published is 1906.

The decrease of crime in 1906 coincides with and may be attributed to some extent to increased prosperity (says the official report). About four-fifths of the crimes are larcenies, and offences of this description tend to diminish in good times. The general state of employment in 1906 showed a marked improvement compared with the previous year. The upward movement in employment which commenced in March, 1905, was almost continuous up to the end of 1906. The percentage of unemployed among members of trade unions was 4·1, the lowest percentage since 1901, the percentages for the intervening years being 4·4, 5·1, 6·5, and 5·4 respectively. There was a net increase of wages for the first time since 1900.

Broadly speaking, crimes **against the person and crimes against property are affected in reverse ways by these conditions.** In good times drunkenness and crimes of violence tend to increase and thefts to diminish; when trade is bad and employment shrinks the opposite state of things occurs. In addition, particular offences are affected in a variety of ways, and by a variety of influences. It will therefore be convenient to consider them in some detail.

Offences against the person may be separated into two groups—offences of violence and sexual offences. Offences of violence increased from 1,430 in 1905 to 1,552 in 1906, an increase of 122. The principal increases were:

Felonious wounding ..	137 an increase of	12
Endangering railway passengers.	111 ,, ,,	28
Malicious wounding ..	671 ,, ,,	27
Intimidation	42 ,, ,,	42
Procuring abortion ..	29 ,, ,,	15
Concealment of birth ..	68 ,, ,,	23

It is remarkable that assaults tried summarily (51,206) showed a decrease of 1,605, and drunkenness (211,493) a decrease of 7,783, as these offences usually move parallel with indictable crimes of violence.

Sexual offences increased from 1,073 in 1905 to 1,152 in 1906, an increase of 79.

Offences of violence against property, mainly offences by professional criminals. Total, 3,398, as against 3,460 in 1905, a decrease of 62. Burglary, shopbreaking, attempts to break into houses, &c., decreased by 151; sacrilege, housebreaking, entering with intent, and possession of housebreaking tools increased by 100. It may be mentioned that the non-indictable offence of being found in enclosed premises for an unlawful purpose fell from 1,841 to 1,700, a decrease of 141.

Offences against property without violence, including (a) larcenies, (b) receiving, (c) frauds. Except as regards larcenies from the person, larcenies are largely committed by occasional offenders driven to crime by poverty, lack of work, &c. Receiving is an offence committed, as a rule, by habitual criminals. The total was 51,338, as against 53,844 in 1905, a decrease of 2,506.

The bulk of the **offences of malicious injuries to property** are dealt with summarily. The total was 418, an increase of 23 over 1905.

Forgery cases decreased by 7, coining increased by 12, and uttering coin decreased by 47.

The number of persons prosecuted for riot rose from 3 to 26, but the latter figure includes, for example, 8 persons for trial in connection with disturbances arising out of a right of way dispute. **Bribery prosecutions** decreased from 77 to 59; **libel cases** increased from 21 to 29; prosecutions **on indictment for habitual drunkenness** decreased from 395 to 377. Prosecutions for habitual drunkenness are fewer than might have been expected when the number of chronic offenders is borne in mind; but the number of prosecutions is restricted by the limited extent to which provision has been made for the accommodation of habitual drunkards in inebriate reformatories. The figures for attempts to commit suicide, though small, continue to show an increase—298 as against 284 in 1905.

If a wider range is given to the meaning of the term "crime" by adding to the indictable offences such of the non-indictable offences as are criminal in character, the effect is to bear out the indications of a decrease of criminality mentioned above. The following non-indictable offences are selected as being of a criminal nature—viz.: (1) Assaults, including aggravated assaults, assaults on constables, and common assaults; (2) brothel keeping; (3) cruelty to children; (4) malicious damage to animals, fences, trees, shrubs, fruit, &c.; (5) unlawful pledging; (6) unlawful possession; (7) stealing workhouse clothes; (8) offences under the Prevention of Crimes Acts; (9) stealing animals, fences, trees, shrubs, fruit, &c., and receiving such things when stolen; and (10) certain offences under the Vagrancy Acts—viz., frequenting, being found in enclosed premises, and being found in possession of picklocks. The number of these offences, together with the figures for indictable offences, in 1905 were 146,590 and in 1906 were 141,343, **the average for five years being** 147,492.

Non-Indictable Offences.—The total number of persons proceeded against for non-indictable offences fell from 729,727 to 700,978, the decrease being spread over a great number of headings, but falling chiefly under drunkenness, assaults, offences against the Education Acts, breaches of police regulations, begging and sleeping out, misbehaviour by paupers, poaching, prostitution, highway obstructions and nuisances, and cruelty to animals. The chief increases occurred in gaming (pitch and toss, &c.) and Borough and County Police Byelaws. Criminal non-indictable offences decreased from 85,136 to 82,264, while non-criminal non-indictable offences fell from 644,591 to 618,714.

Street betting was included under "Offences against Police Regulations—Borough and County Byelaws," and the increase under this heading may possibly be due to the public attention directed to the matter which resulted in the passing of the Street Betting Act, 1906. The offence of keeping betting and gaming houses showed a considerable decrease. The offences of begging and sleeping out and misbehaviour by paupers had increased seriously in recent years, and the decrease in these offences in 1906 is probably due to the increase of employment. The decrease of offences of prostitution and brothel keeping may possibly be a result of the deterrent effect of the expulsion provisions of the Aliens Act, 1905. The figures for living on prostitutes' earnings, however, increased from 312 to 358.

A decrease of offences in relation to drunkenness is shown between 1905 and 1906. In 1905 there were 226,143 cases, and in 1906 there were 217,757.

Expulsion of Aliens.—The Aliens Act, 1905, commenced January 1st, 1906. The number of aliens recommended by the Courts for expulsion was 435 in the year 1906. The principal offences involved in the cases were larceny, frauds, and receiving, 153; vagrancy (begging and sleeping out), 35; burglary, housebreaking, &c., 33; frequenting public places with intent to commit felony, 17; extortion, forgery, coining, &c., 8; sexual offences, indecency, &c., 7; brothel keeping, 74; prostitution, 14; living on prostitutes' earnings, 29; and wounding, assaults, drunkenness, &c., 21. It would appear that to a very great extent the causes of expulsion are "professional" crimes against property and offences against morality.

An analysis of the sentences of the Criminal Courts so far as regards penal servitude shows a great diminution of the longer terms, which, however, is more than counterbalanced by the increase in the number of sentences for short terms of years.

Part at least of the increase of the longer terms of imprisonment may be attributed to the establishment under rules made by the Secretary of State on January 24th, 1902, of what is known as the "**Borstal System**" for the treatment, with a view to their reclamation, of selected male prisoners, known as "juvenile-adults," between the ages of 16 and 21.

Length of Sentences.	1893.	1900.	1906.
10 years and upwards ..	68	39	34
5 years and under 10 ..	398	294	324
Under 5 years	494	395	684
Total	960	728	1,042

The diminution of "heavy" sentences and an equivalent increase of short terms of penal servitude probably arises from the modern tendency to mitigate punishments. The balance of the increase in short sentences can, perhaps, be accounted for in part by the imposition of sentences of penal servitude for three or four years in cases which, before the reduction of the minimum sentence of penal servitude from five to three years by the Penal Servitude Act, 1891, would have been met by sentences of imprisonment for two years.

It must, however, be noted that sentences of imprisonment for long terms have actually increased, while short terms of imprisonment have fallen off.

Length of Sentences.	1893.	1900.	1906.
2 years and above 18 months	123	149	239
18 months and above 1 year	666	625	933
1 year and above 9 months	1,001	968	1,288
9 months and above 6 months	932	806	1,083
6 " " 3 months	2,260	1,900	2,508
3 " " 1 month	1,675	1,332	1,482
1 " " 14 days	640	377	421
14 days and under	478	273	294
Total	7,775	6,430	8,248

A comparison of the figures for 1900 and 1906 shows very clearly that the increose in the longer terms of imprisonment greatly nxceeds the increase in the shorter terms. Thus it appears from the foregoing table that the sentences exceeding nine months were upwards of 41 per cent. more in 1906 than in 1900, whilst at the same time sentences not exceeding three months showed an increase of only 11 per cent.

Of the 10,390 persons convicted, 7,049 had previous convictions recorded against them. The proportion of persons having previous convictions (67.84 per cent.) is higher than in any of the thirteen previous years for which figures are available. The proportion of the persons recognised as having previous convictions has increased progressively, chiefly, it is believed, as the result of improved methods of identification.

Suicides.—Out of the total number of 36,570 deaths investigated by coroners' juries in 1906, 14,293 were found to be due to natural causes or old age, 14,805 were accidental, 223 were still-births, and in 2,133 cases open verdicts were returned. Deducting three cases of justifiable homicide and eight executions of persons condemned to death, there remain only 5,105 deaths ascribed to criminal violence or culpable neglect.

Of these the major part, 3,434, were cases of suicide, which show a decrease of 81, or 2 per cent., as compared with the previous year. The continuous increase in suicide which has been frequently referred to appears to have received a slight check, the figures for the five years 1902 to 1906 being respectively 3,239, 3,480, 3,327, 3,515, and 3,434.

Fifty years' statistics of crime show that thefts have diminished about 40 per cent. when the increase of the population from 19½ millions to 34½ millions is regarded. Offences against the person show no tendency to increase. Crimes against property have fallen from 625 in 1857, to 209 in 1906. Burglary and housebreaking, however, have increased. In 1857 there were 1,644, and in 1906 there were 3,174. At the end of 1857 there were 30,006 persons in English prisons, including 10,320 convicts. In 1906 there were 20,977, of whom 3,048 were in convict prisons. **The decrease (says the Report) is due mainly to such causes as the decrease of sentences of penal servitude,** the shorter sentences now imposed and the substitution of other punishments for imprisonment, and cannot be relied upon to confirm the conclusions as to the decrease of crime.

TO PREVENT CRIME.

THE VALUE OF BORSTAL INSTITUTIONS.

An attempt (1) to make better provision for the prevention of crime, (2) to provide for the reformation of young offenders, and (3) to prolong the detention of habitual criminals is set out in a Bill introduced by Mr. Herbert Gladstone as Home Secretary.

The Bill deals with offenders from 16 to 21 years of age:

"Where a person is convicted on indictment of an offence for which he is liable to be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment (says Clause 1), and it appears to the Court—

"(a) That the person is not less than sixteen nor more than twenty-one years of age; and (b) that, by reason of his antecedents or mode of life, it is expedient that he should be subjected to detention for such term and under such instruction and discipline as appears most conducive to his reformation and the repression of crime, it shall be lawful for the Court to **pass a sentence of detention under penal discipline in a Borstal institution for a term of not less than one year nor more than three years.**

"By sub-section (2) provision is made for an alternative sentence being passed by the Court at the same time:

"Where a Court passes such a sentence, the **Court shall also pass, as an alternative to that sentence, such sentence of penal servitude or imprisonment as the Court would have passed if it had not passed a sentence of detention in a Borstal institution**; and if it appears to the Secretary of State, on the report of the Prison Commissioners, that owing to the character, state of health, or mental condition of the offender, or otherwise, it is not advisable to send the offender to a Borstal institution, the Secretary of State may order that the offender undergo such alternative sentence, and not the sentence of detention in a Borstal institution, but unless the Secretary of State makes such an order, the offender shall undergo the sentence of detention in a Borstal institution, and not the sentence of penal servitude or imprisonment.

"Subject to regulations by the Secretary of State (says Clause 4), the Prison Commissioners may at any time after the expiration of six months from the commencement of the term of detention, **if satisfied that there is reasonable probability that the offender will abstain from crime and lead a useful and industrious life, by licence permit him to be discharged from the Borstal institution** on condition that he be placed under the supervision or authority of any society or person named in the licence who may be willing to take charge of the case.

"**The central idea of the Borstal System is to prevent young offenders from drifting into the ranks of professional criminals** by means of special treatment adapted to arrest the growth of the criminal habit; and the youthful offenders who come under it are set to hard but attractive work, are taught some useful trade, are given special educational instruction, are developed physically by means of regular drill, and are encouraged by the grant of special privileges for good conduct and industry. Experience has shown that it is essential to the success of this system that the prisoners selected for 'Borstal treatment' shall have sentences of sufficient length (not in any case less than twelve months) to enable results of permanent value to be secured."

The second part of the Bill introduces the novel principles of preventive detention:

"Where a person is convicted on indictment of a crime, whether committed before or after the passing of this Act, and subsequently the offender admits that he is, or is found by a jury to be, an habitual criminal, and the Court passes a sentence of penal servitude, the Court (says Clause 8), if of opinion that by reason of his criminal habits and mode of life it is expedient for the protection of the public that the offender should be kept in detention for a lengthened period of years, **may pass a further sentence ordering that on the determination of the sentence of penal servitude he be detained during his Majesty's pleasure, and such detention is hereinafter referred to as preventive detention.**

"An 'habitual criminal' is one who has been three times previously convicted of a crime, or one who at the time he committed the crime for which he is to be sentenced was leading persistently a dishonest or criminal life. The charge of being an habitual criminal must be inserted in the indictment, but only with the consent of the Director of Public Prosecutions and seven days' notice to the prisoner.

"A prisoner is given an absolute right of appeal against a preventive sentence. Such a sentence will be undergone in an ordinary convict prison, but the Secretary of State has power to secure less rigorous treatment for this class of prisoner.

"The Secretary of State shall (says Clause 11), once at least in every three years during which a person is detained in custody under a sentence of preventive detention, take into consideration the condition, history and circumstances of that person with a view to determining whether he shall be placed out on licence, and, if so, on what conditions, and if satisfied that there is reasonable probability that he will abstain from crime and lead a useful and industrious life or that he is no longer capable of engaging in crime, or that for any other reason it is desirable to release such person from confinement in prison, may by licence permit him to be discharged from prison.

Objection to the Bill.—Mr. H. G. B. Montgomery has severely criticised the Bill as an infringement of liberty. "The Prevention of Crime Bill," he says, "when passed, will be the greatest blow that liberty has received in this country for very many years. True, it will practically effect only the liberty of a small, uninteresting, and dangerous class, many, if not most, of whom are the products of modern social conditions. Nevertheless, the essential principle of liberty, which rests upon the Habeas Corpus Act, is assailed in this Bill, and the assault will shortly receive the legislative sanction of several hundred members of Parliament returned to the House of Commons to maintain and defend the sacred and time-honoured principle embodied in the word 'Liberty.'"

SHALL DEBTORS GO TO GAOL?

A Select Committee of the House of Commons is considering the problem of "**Debtors' Imprisonment.**"

Judge Bray, of Birmingham, asked as to the effect of the Debtors' Act, said it had had **a very prejudicial effect on the working classes, because it enabled them to get practically any amount of credit, spread over several years.** They got things they did not want, and the things they wanted they purchased on long terms of credit far above ordinary prices. They were harassed with these burdens of debts for years, and matters were made worse by borrowing at high rates of interest.

There were many Birmingham working men who wanted to be protected against themselves and against their wives and families. The scale on which he had proceeded in Birmingham was that a man should have 11s. a week on which to maintain himself, a man and wife 15s., with 2s. for each child. Supposing a man had 25s. a week on which to support himself, a wife, and two children, that left a weekly margin of 6s., and he certainly ought to pay 6s. a month.

The Chairman: Supposing committal orders were abolished, would he still be likely to get as much credit or more credit than was good for him?—I don't think they would get any credit at all. They won't pay.

Dealing with a suggestion mentioned by the chairman that "necessaries of life" should be exempt from committal order debts, Judge Bray said there was no doubt that in some cases women bought clothes they did not want, and afterwards pawned them. How was a judge to find out two years later that the goods bought were unnecessaries?

Mr. Whitelock, Registrar of the Birmingham County Court, said the general opinion he had formed of the Debtors' Act was that it was too important a weapon for the collection of debt to be dispensed with in the absence of some equal power.

Dr. E. J. Schuster, a member of the English Bar and an authority on German law, explained to the Committee on **Debtors' Imprisonment** the German law and practice in relation to the subject of the Committee's inquiry. Speaking generally, he said, **imprisonment for debt did not exist in Germany.** If, however, the Court was satisfied that a debtor was **concealing, or endeavouring to conceal, any property** which his creditors might seize, he could be imprisoned. In the case of bankruptcy, if it could be shown that there was any likelihood of the debtor leaving the country or of his disposing of property, the Court might order his imprisonment, even before adjudication.

Again, if a creditor could produce prima facie evidence that a debtor had property within, and that he intended to withdraw that property from, the jurisdiction of the Court so as to make it impossible for the creditors to seize the property, in that case, and in that case only, the debtor could be arrested on mere process. **The imprisonment must not exceed six months in any case, and the cost of the debtor's maintenance in prison had to be borne entirely by the creditor or creditors.** If any default were made in the payments for this purpose, the debtor was released.

Members of any German Legislature and members of any mobilised military unit were **exempt from imprisonment** in such circumstances. Members of the Civil Service, clergymen, and public school teachers could not be imprisoned before a substitute had been appointed by a competent authority, which was under a legal obligation to take action.

This power of imprisonment was not exercised against the working classes, because the ordinary workman had no property, and his wages were expressly exempted from seizure. The creditor of a working man had no means of enforcing payment of his debt. Credit was not, as far as he knew, largely given to the working classes in Germany. They had to pay their way as they went along. The German law was, in his opinion, more effective than the English law in preventing dishonest people who had property from cheating their creditors, and less oppressive on poor people, who, owing to misfortune or calamity, were unable to pay their debts.

Mr. John Arthur Barratt, legal adviser to the American Embassy in London, says that in many of the states in America there were constitutional provisions against imprisonment for debt. Even in the states where it was practised it was extremely unpopular. If it could be proved that a debtor in the State of New York was about to abscond, then he could be arrested, but the general trend of the law in the United States was in favour of the small debtor, and especially the wage-earner.

DECREASING LITIGATION.

Sir John Macdonell has some striking results to record in his latest return of the Civil Judicial Statistics, which deal with cases before the Privy Council, the House of Lords, the Supreme Courts, the County Courts, and other civil Courts.

The chief results of these returns (he says) show as to 1906 compared with 1905 a decline in the total proceedings begun in all Courts (1,452,000 as against 1,473,000); an increase in the cases begun before the Judicial Committee (99 against 84); and a decrease in those begun in the House of Lords (53 against 75); a slight decline in appeals, particularly interlocutory, set down in the Court of Appeal (636 against 652); a decline in proceedings begun in the Chancery and King's Bench Divisions (6,775 against 6,791 in Chancery Division, 69,580 against 72,003 in the King's Bench); a slight increase in the cases in the Commercial Court and a decline in the trials on Circuit; an increase in petitions for dissolution of marriage and decrees (928 as against 921); a decline in plaints in the County Courts (1,338,000 against 1,356,000); a decline in Receiving Orders (4,413 against 4,738) and deeds filed under the Deeds of Arrangement Act (3,641 against 3,839).

Speaking generally, in 1906 the business of the various Courts decreased or was almost stationary.

ROOSEVELT'S FARM IDEALS.

President Roosevelt has appointed a committee of investigation to make suggestions as to ways in which the social, sanitary, and economic conditions of American farms can be improved.

"The farmers have hitherto had less than their full share of public attention along the lines of business and social life," says the President, in his letter of introduction. "There is too much belief among all our people that the prizes of life lie away from the farm. I am therefore anxious to bring before the people of the United States the question of securing better business and better living on the farm.

"No nation," he says, "has ever achieved permanent greatness unless this greatness was based on the well-being of the great farmer class, the men who live on the soil; for it is upon their welfare, material and moral, that the welfare of the rest of the nation ultimately rests." He believes that American farmers are better off than they ever were before, but he asserts that "the social and economic institutions of the open country are not keeping pace with the development of the nation as a whole."

"I doubt," says the President, "if any other nation can bear comparison with our own in the amount of attention given by the Government, both Federal and State, to agricultural matters. But practically the whole of this effort has hitherto been directed toward increasing the production of crops. Our attention has been concentrated almost exclusively on getting better farming. In the beginning this was unquestionably the right thing to do. The farmer must first of all grow good crops in order to support himself and his family. But when this has been secured the effort for better farming should cease to stand alone, and should be accompanied by the effort for better business and better living on the farm.

"It is at least as important that the farmer should get the largest possible return in money, comfort, and social advantages from the crops he grows as that he should get the largest possible return in crops from the land he farms. Agriculture is not the whole of country life. The great rural interests are human interests, and good crops are of little value to the farmer unless they open the door to a good kind of life on the farm.

"It is especially important that whatever will serve to prepare country children for life on the farm, and whatever will brighten home life in the country and make it richer and more attractive for the mothers, wives, and daughters of farmers, should be done promptly, thoroughly, and gladly. There is no more important person, measured in influence upon the life of the nation, than the farmer's wife, no more important home than the country home, and it is of national importance to do the best we can for both."

LONDON'S POLICE VINDICATED.

A Royal Commission was appointed to "inquire into and report on the duties of the Metropolitan Police in dealing with cases of drunkenness, disorder, and solicitation in the streets, and the manner in which those duties are discharged."

The Report was issued in 1908, and "The impression left by it," says the "Mail," "is that the 17,000 men charged with the work of maintaining order in a population of nearly seven millions do their work faithfully and well."

Here are the definite conclusions to which the Commission has come:

"1. We think the discipline of the force is well maintained.

"2. The general arrangements for the maintenance of order and for the prevention of offences in the streets, and for the apprehension and punishment of offenders, are excellent, and are carried out almost invariably in a thoroughly satisfactory manner.

"3. The Metropolitan Police Force is entitled to the confidence of all classes of the community.

"The statistical evidence which we have obtained seems to us to afford satisfactory proof that instances of positive misconduct on the part of police-constables are, when one considers the immense number of cases with which they have to deal, so comparatively rare as to give no cause for disquietude."

After their appointment the Commission received 300 definite complaints from the general public, of which 99 made specific accusations against the police. A prolonged and exhaustive investigation was made; these charges generally related to (1) the fact of the arrest itself being unjustified; (2) the manner in which the prisoner was apprehended and his treatment on the way to the station; (3) the proceedings in the charge-room; (4) his treatment at the station; (5) the conduct of the case by the police in the court.

The Commissioners submit that they have no ground whatever for inferring that wrongful arrests are frequent, and that they cannot see why there should be any disposition on the part of an ordinary constable to effect an unnecessary arrest. On the other hand, they had no complaints from any quarter "that constables either from timidity or laziness or indisposition to take upon themselves the burden of prosecution, neglect their duties and abstain from effecting arrests where it may be necessary to do so in the interests of public order."

In short, the Commissioners deem themselves safe in saying that—

"Upon the whole, the Metropolitan Police steer with remarkable skill for the middle line between fussy and over-zealous intervention on the one hand, and timid or negligent inactivity on the other."

After discussing the checks upon police action, the report goes on to deal with the various points upon which complaints were made. The Commissioners hold that there are ample safeguards against unnecessary arrest, and they have "no reason for thinking that the police effect arrests with unnecessary violence." Their conclusion under this head is—

"That the Metropolitan Police, as a rule, arrest and take their prisoners to the police-station in accordance with the spirit and letter of their instructions, and that the instances in which unnecessary pain is inflicted are extremely rare."

There were 46,810 police in England and Wales in 1907.

TO SAVE DAYLIGHT.

Mr. W. Willett has propounded a scheme for so altering the clock that more work should be done by daylight. The scheme has been incorporated into a Parliamentary Bill, and a Select Committee has reported in its favour:

"The Committee find that the Bill proposes **the adoption of a local time in advance of Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain and in advance of the Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, during the summer months**—viz., from April to September in each year—with the object of promoting the earlier and more extended use and enjoyment of daylight during those months. And that such object is desirable, and would benefit the community if it can be generally attained, and that the weight of the evidence submitted to the Committee agrees with and supports this view, though there was divergence of opinion as to the best mode of accomplishing it.

"**The paramount advantage the Committee find to be the greater use of daylight during the months named.**

"The effect of the proposals of the Bill would be:

"(1) To move the usual hours of work and leisure nearer to sunrise.

"(2) To promote the greater use of daylight for recreative purposes of all kinds.

"(3) To lessen the use of licensed houses.

"(4) To facilitate the training of the Territorial Forces.

"(5) To benefit the physique, general health, and welfare of all classes of the community.

"(6) To reduce the industrial, commercial, and domestic expenditure on artificial light.

"The Committee agree that the objects proposed cannot be attained without legislation.

"And that a single Act establishing local time for the United Kingdom of Great Britan and Ireland is better than an Act severally altering all the times prescribed by various Acts, bylaws, and other rules for the conduct of civil business.

"And that the interference with European traffic will be inappreciable compared with the general benefit to the nation at large, and can be easily overcome.

"And that the interference with American business can be obviated without serious dislocation or loss by the adherence of those concerned to their present hours when necessary.

"And that the various interests affected could, without much initial difficulty, adapt themselves to the alteration.

"For the sake of simplicity and general public convenience the Committee find that a single alteration of one hour in April, and a similar alteration of one hour in September, is the best mode of attaining the object of the Bill.

"And the Committee recommend that these changes should take place at two o'clock in the morning, Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Britain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, on the third Sunday in April, and at two o'clock in the morning, Greenwich mean time in the case of Great Brtain, and Dublin mean time in the case of Ireland, on the third Sunday in September of each year.

"The Committee find there is no serious practical difficulty in adjusting clocks and watches to these seasonal changes.

"The Committee consider that the Bill should be called the Local Time (Great Britain and Ireland) Bill.

"The Committee consider that no interference with Greenwich mean time should be attempted, and that for all scientific purposes, such as astronomy or navigation, Greenwich mean time should continue to be used as heretofore."

TO REFORM LONDON'S GOVERNMENT.

Some drastic proposals for the reform of London's Government have been made by a special committee of the London Reform Union (Trafalgar Buildings, Charing Cross, S.W.). They are set out, with arguments, in a shilling pamphlet. The committee **contends the government of London can be greatly simplified and improved (1) by consolidating** the municipal and poor law administrations, so that all duties of a local character will be entrusted to the local authorities, **whilst** all work of a metropolitan character **will be administered by the Central Authority, and (2) by providing as far as possible for expenditure being met out of one central rate,** the Central Authority having the necessary **powers of financial control.**

The steps whereby this result should be achieved, are:

1. **The Metropolitan Asylums Board** and all boards of guardians should be abolished.

2. **The Central Authority should become the authority for indoor poor,** and should have charge of all institutions (workhouses, asylums, schools, casual wards, infirmaries, cottage homes, labour colonies, &c.) at present maintained by poor law authorities in the county area; should manage all contracts and keep a central store.

3. The Central Authority should be the authority for the care of imbecile asylums and of hospitals for infectious diseases, and for all other duties of the M.A.B.

4. The Central Authority should be the authority for valuation and assessment throughout the whole of the county area.

5. There should be only one local elected authority for all purposes in each minor area.

6. The other duties of the boards of guardians should be transferred to the Borough Councils.

7. The Metropolitan Common Poor Fund, the County Grants and the Equalisation of Rates Fund should be abolished, and in lieu thereof the Central Council should raise a special Metropolitan Rate for the purpose of defraying the expenditure of the local authorities, the Central Council to have such powers of financial control conferred upon it as will enable it to secure proper and economical expenditure of the money so handed over to the local authorities.

REFORMING THE PORT OF LONDON.

The House of Commons, in March, 1906, passed this resolution without a division: "That **this** House is of opinion that the condition of **the Port and Docks of London** urgently demands **attention** with a view to the management thereof being forthwith placed in the hands of a public authority."

The Royal Commission in 1902 reported that the port "is in danger of losing part of its existing trade and certainly part of the trade which might otherwise come to it" by reason of the inadequacy of the river channels and docks; also that the port "has shown signs of losing that position relatively to other ports, British and foreign, which it has held for so long."

A settlement is more urgent now than it was when the Commission reported. London has a smaller share of the trade and shipping of the United Kingdom than it had fifteen and sixteen years ago. The position of London relatively to that of its principal competitors abroad is perhaps even more important, and the extensive improvements effected and to be effected at Hamburg, Antwerp, Rotterdam, and other foreign ports, will make their competition more and more formidable.

The principal docks are the **London and India Docks**, with a capital of £18,973,425; the **Surrey Commercial Dock**, with £2,635,104; and the **Millwall Dock Co.**, with £2,094,157—nearly £24,000,000 in all. These docks have **a water area of 645 acres, and quays of 145,880 feet in extent.**

The Board of Trade opened up negotiations with the dock companies for their purchase and transfer to a new authority. The Government suggest in a Bill now before Parliament that **the new authority** shall consist of twenty-eight members, to be called the **Port Authority**. There is to be a chairman and vice-chairman, who may be elected from outside.

Eighteen members are to be elected by payers of dues, owners of river craft and wharfingers; one member will be elected by the Admiralty, two by the Board of Trade (one of these to represent labour), two by the L.C.C. being members and two not members, two by the Corporation, and one by Trinity House. The Board of Trade will appoint the first chairman.

The net available income of the three dock companies is put at £809,000 a year, and the **terms of payment** which have been agreed upon by negotiation are the issue of Port Stock created by the Act thus:

London and India	A	£7,978,876
	B	£9,893,835
Surrey Commercial	A	£522,000
	B	£2,388,485
Millwall Dock	A	£651,276
	B	£928,504

The A stock bears 3 per cent., and B stock 4 per cent.

This authority will have to administer the Port **from Teddington to fifty-one miles from London Bridge.**

The Docker.—In order to diminish the evils of casual labour which have been so marked in the past in connection with work at the docks, there is a provision requiring the Port Authority to take into consideration the existing methods and conditions of engagement of riverside labour, and to establish or assist in the establishment of offices and registers with a view to the more convenient and regular engagement of these workmen.

The Conservancy, which will control the **river above Teddington**, will be reconstructed. There will be seventeen members. It is hoped that this Bill will come into force on January 1st, 1909.

LONDON'S ELECTRICITY SUPPLY.

The City Corporation and the Borough Councils are the local authorities for the distribution of electricity in the Administrative County of London. The London County Council is only the authority for lighting Victoria Embankment, Waterloo and Westminster bridges, and Blackwall Tunnel.

In 1906–7 the **Borough Councils** had a **capacity of plant** of 58,124 kilowatts, and the **London companies** 132,475 kilowatts—a total of 190,599.

The maximum load on the plant for all undertakings was 122,682 kilowatts.

The number of units sold during the year was 169,440,650 units for the London undertakings, and 47,169,140 units for the extra London undertakings.

The outstanding capital of the Borough Council undertaking was £5,296,496, and of the London companies £13,006,705.

A Bill came before Parliament—the London and District Electricity Bill—to give London a cheaper supply of electricity. The present London County Council objected to undertake this task, though many advocate a municipal supply. A private company offered to undertake the enterprise of supplying London in bulk with cheap electrical power. But the London County Council was to have the power, on reasonable terms, to purchase the undertaking. This proviso was carried by a large majority in the Commons.

The Board of Trade made the following stipulations:

Adequate protection of existing undertakings. Reduction of the life of the company to forty-two years instead of fifty-two years. Provision that payment in purchase may be made in stock. Omission of power to purchase other undertakings.

The new company was required to show a subscribed capital of £600,000, with a called-up capital of £240,000, and bound to make a substantial beginning in two years. But £2,000,000 would be required to make a start with 20,000 kilowatts. The company estimated that a saving in the cost of output to London of £640,000 a year would be effected, and that on the present output of 233,000,000 units the difference in the cost would be £225,000. The enterprise was backed by Sir Hugh Bell. But the Select Committee came to the conclusion that the preamble was not proved.

TO SAVE NATURAL RESOURCES.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S STRIKING PLANS.

President Roosevelt has taken an unusual course to prevent the continued waste of the natural resources of the United States.

He called together at the White House the Governors of all the States, and nearly all were present, also Mr. Carnegie and Mr. J. J. Hill, and the meeting has been described as "the most widely representative assemblage ever gathered together in the history of the country."

The exact nature of the destruction of the natural resources of the States may be gauged by this extract from the "Independent":

"Loot and graft has been among our least destructive sins; and that while waking up to the need of reform along the lines of political and social honesty, we still more need to comprehend the tremendous fact that our material wealth faces exhaustion.

"Coal was sold for the first time in the United States for fuel about 1830; we are now mining five tons annually to every person in the United States. The 'Independent' was the first magazine to give public voice to Edward Orton's estimate, twenty years ago, that coal could not keep up with the demand beyond 1950. Present estimates credit us with still possessing at least two millions of millions of unmined tons. Last year we mined 470 millions. Using that as a divisor, it is easy to see that Mr. Orton's estimate was not far from right.

"Our forests were practically unbroken in 1830; they will barely last, at the present rate of consumption, until 1930. Our standing timber is now estimated at two million millions of feet; our annual cut at 40,000 millions. We are consuming annually more than three times as much timber as forest growing can replace. When the forests fail the lumber business, which is now our fourth greatest industry, will disappear. Mining will be far more expensive, and the price of coal and iron will go up.

"Our waste of physical and moral power has been quite as reckless as that of material wealth. Our human frame comes to us from lower mammalian life. We have adopted habits that are pulling down the superb physical frame we inherited and are creating a waste of slavery to intoxicants and narcotics. Our ratio of degenerates is enormously on the increase, while to nothing else can we attribute the presence of anarchy in the United States but the shameful lack of economic social habits.

"We have educated a ruling class, but we have educated our common people away from the land and from that sort of knowledge which enables them to honour work and achievement. Industrial education alone can save our working classes from degeneracy. For more reasons than one the American people should face this problem of waste; and, if for no other reason, we shall honour the administration of Mr. Roosevelt for the high pressure given to the development of natural resources on economic lines. The salvation of the American people depends not on armies and navies, but on the the stopping of waste and the just distribution of wealth."

President Roosevelt, in concluding his speech to the Governors, said: "Finally, let us remember **that the conservation of our natural resources, though the gravest problem of to-day, is yet but part of another and greater problem, to which this nation is not yet awake, but to which it will awake in time, and with which it must hereafter grapple if it is to live—the problem of national efficiency, the patriotic duty of ensuring the safety and continuance of the nation.**

"When the people of the United States consciously undertake to raise themselves as citizens, and the nation and the States in their several spheres, to the highest pitch of excellence in private, State, and national life, and to do this because it is the first of all the duties of true patriotism, then, and not till then, the future of this nation, in quality and in time, will be assured."

REGULATIONS FOR TRUSTS.

Here are the views of the two political parties in the United States on Trusts:

The Democrats say: "A private monopoly is indefensible and intolerable. We therefore favour the vigorous reform of the criminal law against guilty trust magnates and officials, and demand the enactment of such additional legislation as may be necessary to make it impossible for a private monopoly to exist in the United States. Among the **additional remedies, we pecify three:**

"**First,** a law preventing a duplication of directors among competing corporations; **second,** a licence system which will, without abridging the right of each state to create corporations, or its right to regulate as it will foreign corporations doing business within its limits, make it necessary for a manufacturing or trading corporation engaged in inter-state commerce to take out a federal licence before it shall be permitted to control as much as 25 per cent. of the product in which it deals, the licence to protect the public from watered stock, and to prohibit the control of such corporation of more than 50 per cent. of the total amount of any product consumed in the United States; and, third, a law compelling such licensed corporations to sell to all purchasers in all parts of the country on the same terms, after making due allowance for cost of transportation."

The Republicans say: "The Republican party passed the Sherman anti-trust law over Democratic opposition, and enforced it after Democratic dereliction. It has been a wholesome instrument for good in the hands of a wise and fearless administration. But experience has shown that its effectiveness can be strengthened, and its real objects better attained by such **amendments as will give to the federal government greater supervision and control over, and secure greater publicity in, the management of that class of corporations engaged in inter-state commerce having power and opportunity to effect monopolies.**

THE TAXATION OF LAND VALUES.

THE ARGUMENTS OF ITS ADVOCATES.

The advocates of the taxation of land values contend that the increased value of land due to the labour and expenditure of the whole community belongs to those whose efforts have made it—the community—and that some means should be devised to secure for the community that increased value. One method is to secure it by taxation, which involves in the first place the separate assessment of land and buildings where they exist together.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie, in his new book, "Problems of To-day," says: "Wealth is not all the result of manual labour, though the first small surplus was. The greatest growth of wealth from any one source in our times comes from the increased value of real estate upon which little or no labour is bestowed, **the increase of population raising values.**"

Giving figures for the United States, Mr. Carnegie says that the value of real estate in that country increased from 39,544,544,333 dols. to 52,537,628,164 dols., an increase of 12,999,083,831 dols., which he points out is "£260,000,000 a year—over £700,000 a day."

Then he adds: "**The obvious creator of this wealth is not the individual, but the community.**"

These principles are behind the **Scottish Valuation Bill**, which was introduced in 1907. **Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman defined its purpose thus**:

"In providing for a separate valuation of the value of the land apart from buildings and improvements, we shall be preparing the way for a reform of the rating system in our urban areas which is urgently needed and properly desired, and we shall at the same time very much simplify the process of the public acquisition of land by getting a record of how much of their value is due to improvements and how much to the annual value of the land. It is an indispensable preliminary step. It will show us what the land values are, and where they are."

This Bill passed its Third Reading in the Commons on August 21st by 139 votes, but on August 26th the House of Lords rejected it by 87 votes. It was, however, passed through the Commons a second time in 1908 by 257 votes on its Third Reading. The Lords once more amended it, and it awaits the further consideration of the Commons.

The Lords' principal amendments made the adoption of the Bill by a local authority optional, and substituted "yearly value" for "capital land value" in the definition clause.

It is understood that a **Valuation Bill for England and Wales** is also to be introduced. In the Commons on May 12th, Mr. Asquith said that Mr. Burns would introduce "at an early date a Valuation Bill for England and Wales, with two objects—first of all to simplify and methodise and make, as far as possible, uniform the system of valuation throughout the length and breadth of England and Wales. The second object would be to provide for a separate valuation of sites and buildings. No valuation measure could be adequate to the necessities of the case which did not carry out both these principles." Mr. Asquith said that a new and complete reconstruction of our valuation and rating system was the necessary complement of the Housing and Town Planning Bill.

The advocates of the taxation of land values look to such taxation to provide funds for the many problems of social reform which await treatment through lack of them. They believe that it will cheapen the price of land, and thus facilitate the provision of allotments and small holdings. Further, that it will have the effect of lowering rents generally.

SCOTCH SMALL HOLDINGS.

The House of Lords has had twice before them the Small Landowners Bill. On the first occasion, in 1907, the changes they made led the Government to withdraw it. This year it was rejected by 120 votes.

The Duke of Rutland moved its rejection in these terms:

"This House, while desirous of facilitating on sound economic principles the extension of small agricultural holdings in Scotland, and of considering such amendments of the Crofters Acts as are shown to be required, declines to pass a measure (1) which unnecessarily extends the provisions of the Crofters Acts throughout Scotland; (2) which establishes a Land Court for the whole of Scotland; (3) which does not enjoy the general approval of the agricultural interests proposed to be affected; and (4) which provides for the transfer to three Agricultural Commissioners of the work at present undertaken by the Board of Agriculture in Scotland, whereas it is essential for the safety of the flocks and herds of Great Britain that the administrative responsibility under the Diseases of Animals Acts should remain in the hands of a single department."

Mr. Asquith defined the objects of the Bill in these terms (October 3rd, 1908):

"The provision throughout the whole of Scotland of a system of small holdings, if need be by the exercise of compulsory powers; holdings to be held and cultivated by occupying tenants sitting at fair rents, adjusted under a simple and direct procedure, by a wholly independent and impartial authority, and enjoying complete security of tenure, the interests of landlords and of existing farmers being safeguarded, not only by the statutory conditions imposed upon the small holder, but by wide powers of resumption and by the right to compensation for any pecuniary injury that can be proved to have been sustained."

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS.

A number of educationists have declared their desire, without trenching upon the claims of liberal culture, to see girls better prepared to undertake the duties of the home. Capable instructors are needed, and therefore the first step must be to provide education for the teachers of the future. Accordingly, it is proposed to establish in London a course of post-graduate instruction in household economics at King's College, and also in Leeds and Cheltenham.

TOLSTOY AND THE LAND PROBLEM.

Count Tolstoy has defined his position with regard to the land problem in a letter to the Federation of Single Tax Leagues in Australia, on September 2nd, 1908. He wrote:

To my regret, I have done too little for the cause so dear to you and me which unites us. Of late I have been thinking more and more about it, and should I yet be afforded power for work I will endeavour to express the teaching of Henry George, who has as yet been far from appreciated according to his merits, as clearly, as briefly, and as accessibly to the great mass of land workers as possible.

The injustice and evil of property in land has long ago been recognised. More than a hundred years ago the great French thinker Jean Jacques Rousseau had written:—"The **one who first fenced in a plot of land and take upon himself to say, 'This land is mine,' and found** people so simple-minded as to believe him, that man was the first founder of the social organisation which now exists. From how many crimes, wars, murders, calamities, cruelties would mankind have been delivered had some man then uprooted the fences and filled up the ditches saying:—'Beware, do not believe this deceiver; you will perish if you forget that the land cannot belong to anyone, and that its fruits belong to all."

The injustice of the seizure of the land as property has long ago been recognised by thinking people, but **only since the teaching of Henry George has it become clear by what means this injustice can be abolished.**

In our time the realisation of this teaching has become specially necessary not only in Russia—where the land problem is unfortunately being solved in a way most contrary to justice, to the people's consciousness and to reason—but also in all so-called civilised states. This problem—that is, **the abolition of property in land—at the present time everywhere demands its solution as insistingly as** half a century ago the problem of slavery demanded its solution in Russia and America.

This problem insistingly demands its solution because **the supposed right of landed property now lies at the foundation not only of economic misery, but also of political disorder, and, above** all, of the moral depravation of the people.

The wealthy ruling classes, foreseeing the loss of the advantages of their position inevitable with the solution of the problem, are endeavouring by various false interpretations, justifications, and palliatives, with all their power to postpone as long as possible its solution.

But the time comes for everything, and as fifty years ago the time came for the abolition of man's supposed right of property over man, so the time has now come for the abolition of the supposed right of property in land which affords the possibility of appropriating other people's labour. The time for this has come, and is now so near at hand that nothing can arrest the abolition of this dreadful means of oppressing the people.

Yet some effort, and this great emancipation of the nations shall be accomplished.

THE RUSSIAN MIR.

The system of collective ownership of land now existing in Russian villages, known as the "Mir," is to end. When the serfs were abolished village lands were given to them for use in common. But it has been found that the system did not extract the best work from the labourers, and a Bill has been introduced into the Duma which will end the "Mir," and create a system of personal property in agricultural land.

VACANT LOTS.

Mr. Joseph Fels advocates the utilisation of vacant lots in our cities to find work for the unemployed. He says that the cultivation of land at present idle within the precincts of great towns has been found feasible in America, and also on a small scale in this country. Such land can, apparently, be made to return an average market-gardening profit, the whole of which goes to the men who work the land, constituting a substantial and welcome addition to their earnings from casual labour. He computes that there are 10,000 acres of idle land in and about the metropolis, that the produce can be made worth £45 per acre.

Mr. Fels gives as ascertained facts that the land is eagerly sought after, that 90 per cent. of the men stick to the work, that they learn it very satisfactorily, and that a great many acquire a real liking for it.

Vacant Land Cultivation Society, 39, Wilson Street, E.C.

BIRD BILL.

Lord Avebury, in moving the Second Reading in the House of Lords of a Bill (Importation of Plumage Prohibitive Bill), prohibiting the introduction into the United Kingdom for sale or exchange of the plumage, skin, or body of any dead wild bird other than birds used for food, eider ducks, or ostriches, said the Bill had been introduced on behalf of the Linnean Society, the Zoological Society, the Society for the Preservation of Birds, and the Selborne Society, and it had the general support of the naturalists of the country. The most beautiful species of birds were being rapidly exterminated. The Bill was read a second time and referred to a Committee.

SMALL HOLDINGS SOCIETY.

The Central Small Holdings Society (President, the Earl of Stamford; Secretary, Hubert Beaumont, 6, John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C.) was formed in the year 1904, its objects being:

(1) To excite public interest in the question of small holdings; (2) to urge upon county councils the use of their existing powers; (3) to advocate such legislation as may make the Small Holdings Act a reality; (4) to stimulate, wherever the conditions are favourable, a local demand for small holdings by means of lectures and meetings; (5) to promote and assist the formation of colonies of small holders on co-operative lines.

Agricultural Organisation Society, Dacre House, Dacre Street, Westminster, S.W. This society will assist in the formation of agricultural credit banks.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

THE IMPORTANCE OF IRISH LAND PURCHASE.

By CAPTAIN SHAWE TAYLOR.

The beginning of 1908 saw the Nationalist Party still divided in its counsels. To keep the country in a state of chronic turmoil, to brand as "hereditary enemies" ex-landowners and independent Orangemen who were anxious to help the progress of Irish reform, to hinder the successful working of the Irish Land Act, as it promoted peace, seemed to the section represented by Mr. Dillon the acme of political acumen and statesmanship.

In direct opposition to these views, Mr. O'Brien, who still remained outside the Party, believed that internal peace was now essential to the progress of the country, that the Land Act, the result of a common agreement between landlords and tenants, afforded the sure means of peaceably abolishing landlordism, and that the action of the Irish Reform Association in advocating an extension of self government had conclusively proved that ex-landowners would, if they were given the commonest of fair play, cordially co-operate in securing further legitimate Irish reforms.

Fearful of a split, such as had occurred in the days of Parnell, the country to a certain extent acquiesced in the "kicking up a row" policy, for its advocates ever promised that this line of action was the certain prelude to a great measure of Home Rule.

The introduction of the modest Irish Council Bill, even more limited in its scope than the proposals of the Irish Reform Association, pricked the bubble of the Dillonite fiction. Nationalists suddenly realised that Home Rule, so far from being a matter of months, as they had been led to believe, was now considerably further off than when Mr. Gladstone had introduced his Irish Bills. The realisation of these facts, long foretold by Mr. O'Brien, caused an immediate reaction. Men hitherto silent began to speak out. The leaders were openly criticised. Sir Thomas Esmonde resigned his post of Whip; Mr. O'Mara resigned his seat in Kilkenny. The country demanded a change of policy.

Accordingly a meeting of the Party was held, and on the motion of Mr. Dillon an invitation was extended to Mr. O'Brien and Mr. Healy t rejoin the Parliamentary ranks with their followers. At the same time, as a basis of re-union, it was agreed that for the future the Party should join in friendly co-operation with all classes and creeds who were willing to help to secure any reforms upon which they could all conscientiously agree. As this was the policy that had produced the Land Act of 1903, and for which Mr. O'Brien had ever since been contending, both he, Mr. Healy, and Sir Thomas Esmonde rejoined the Party.

Events, however, soon proved that this unity was only superficial. The tactics to be pursued with regard to **the Land Act** soon led to a recrudescence of former differences. The Act had been singularly successful. **In five years some £75,000,000 worth of land had been agreed to be sold to the tenants.** These were paying their instalments with extraordinary regularity, while peace and contentment invariably follow the transfer of the land. But the very succ of the Act had led to complications. The Estates Commissioners were unable to keep pace with their work; some **£50,000,000 worth of land was still unpaid for.**

As a result, some 200 000 tenants were paying 3¼ to 4 per cent. to landowners instead of the 3¼ they would be paying to the Government once the landowners had been paid off. Tenants were also losing the benefit of the sinking fund which, included in the 3¼ per cent. annuity, should be going to paying off their annual instalments for the redemption period of 68½ years. This loss to the tenants amounted to some £500,000 a year. Both landowners and tenants were thus equally interested in removing the existing financial deadlock.

Mr. O'Brien believed that some practical joint agreement should be come to by both landowners of the type of Lord Dunraven and the tenants' representatives to remove this deadlock. Such matters as the evicted tenant, the congested districts, and any other contentious agrarian matters could also be settled by a friendly and equitable agreement. Such an agreement would certainly reach the Statute Book.

Mr. Dillon, however, dissented from this proposal, and as an alternative proposed that a small Finance Committee of the Nationalist Party should make a report. This report, when issued, recommended that there should be "no change in the percentage of the bonus, or in the rate of annuity, and that **losses on the flotation of stock should not be allowed to fall on Irish ratepayers, but should be met by an Imperial charge.**" No attempt to secure combined action on the report was made.

Meanwhile, **Mr. O'Brien**, relying on the terms of the re-union compact, attended a joint meeting of both landowners and tenants in Cork, convened by the Lord Mayor, the Chairman of the County Council, and Lord Bandon. Mr. Healy gave his support. Tenants' representatives from various parts of Ireland attended, and on the platform were Lord Castletown, Lord Dunraven, and Lord Barrymore, with whom, as Mr. Smith-Barry, Mr. O'Brien had formerly fought so bitterly. Ten representative landowners, ten tenants' representatives, and ten Members of Parliament were appointed to wait on the Prime Minister to urge the national importance of preventing the financial breakdown of the Irish Land Act. This combined deputation the Prime Minister refused to receive.

It is greatly to be hoped that nothing may be done by Parliament to hinder the successful working of the Act by inflicting a loss on either the landowners, tenants, or ratepayers, and that, if necessary, a temporary use of Imperial funds may be made to avoid such a contingency.

Nor will the State be a loser. Peace invariably follows purchase. Without a doubt £500,000 a year will be saved in police expenses with the completion of land transfer, for the constabulary exist at present almost entirely

to keep the peace in agrarian disputes. The present Land Commission will disappear, with a corresponding saving of £200,000 a year. Similarly, the work of the Estates Commissioners will be completed, and thus another large saving effected. The proposal, therefore, stands as a business proposition, when, in addition, it will promote the peace, the industrial progress, and social betterment of the whole country, it becomes one that may well commend itself to the highest Imperial statesmanship.

With regard to self-government, the "Irish Imperial Home Rule Association," with the motto "Federation, not Separation," and composed of some hundreds of the commercial and professional classes, who have hitherto held aloof from politics, has been formed. It advocates **a** legislative assembly in Ireland something **on the** lines of the self-governing colonies, **but is not** at present committed to any very **definite** scheme. Similarly, the **Irish Reform Association,** under the presidency of Lord Dunraven, also favours a further extension of self-governement.

The Sinn Fein Party, which is opposed to parliamentarianism, continues to make considerable headway. Whether it be the fostering of Irish industries, the foundation of national banks, the opening up of foreign trade, the establishment of a national civil service, or of a merchant fleet, their proposals are mainly of a constructive nature. If £8,000 is subscribed the New Year will see a daily instead of a weekly paper started to further popularise their views.

Under the recently passed **Universities Act,** the result of a compromise between the various educational interests, Trinity College continues to be the University of Dublin, Belfast Queen's College becomes a university, and a new university, consisting of a new college in Dublin, together with Cork and Galway Queen's Colleges, takes the place of the abolished Royal University. This new university will be known as the National University. The Roman Catholic bishops will now remove the ban from the Cork and Galway Queen's Colleges, and as no degree will in future be given unless the student has attended lectures in one of the colleges of the new university, it is probable that the numbers attending the Queen's Colleges will be considerably increased.

The future of this university will, to a great extent, rest with the governing body, which will be elected largely on academic grounds. Under the Act no place of public worship can be erected within the new college in Dublin, nor can any test of religious belief be imposed on any professor, graduate, or student. It is probable that Maynooth College will be affiliated to the National, and Magee College to Belfast University. The county councils are likely to provide scholarships for poor students, while provision for a commercial and agricultural education will probably find a place in the curriculum.

The Gaelic League advocates **the establishment of a Chair of Irish** devoted to the study of the national language at the university. At present some 270,000 people are learning the language, while it is being taught in 3,500 schools. Seven Irish colleges have been established. Every year a congress, or Ard-Fheis, under the presidency of Dr. Hyde, sits and discusses in Irish the affairs of the league.

Economically, the country is improving, the imports being 1½ millions and the exports nearly 4½ millions in excess of last year. The number of depositors of the Savings Bank has increased by 20,000. An industrial conference was held in Galway, and attended by representatives from London, the United States, France, Denmark, Australia, New Zealand, Portugal, Argentina, and Mexico to consider the opening up of new markets for Irish goods outside of Ireland. A commission has been sent to Germany to submit to German manufacturers the advantages Ireland offers under the Patents Act.

An Irish importing company has been formed in New York, with a capital of 30,000 dollars, to found an emporium in that city, while another company, with a capital of £10,000, has acquired 94, Victoria St. as a similar emporium in **London** for Irish manufacturers.

The department of agriculture, under Mr. T. W. Russell, is everywhere familiarising peasant proprietors with the latest scientific methods, while a new building, to be known as Plunkett House, in Dublin, is being presented to Sir Horace Plunkett as a centre for the work of his agricultural co-operative societies. The Corporation of Dublin has acquired temporary premises for its new modern Art Gallery, and will confer the freedom of the city on its founder, Mr. Lane.

There are many forces working for the uplifting of the country, and there is not one of them that is not directly hindered in its operations by the further continuance of the agrarian feud. The coming of peace, as a result of increased facilities for land purchase, will add vitality to every constructive force in Ireland, for national reconciliation is the necessary prelude to national regeneration.

CATTLE-DRIVING.

Cattle-driving in Ireland has been strongly condemned by Mr. Birrell and Mr. Asquith. Mr. Birrell said:

"They are not only illegal and dishonest acts in themselves, but it cannot be doubted that they tend to promote a spirit of lawlessness and turbulence in their particular localities which must certainly be deplored from every possible point of view—political, economic, moral, religious, or in any other way. That is undoubtedly the view which his Majesty's Government take of what is called cattle-driving."

Mr. Asquith said: "The practice of what was called cattle-driving, which had sprung up during the last year, was not only an offence against the law, but in his opinion it was a peculiarly reprehensible and unpatriotic kind of offence, for in its later developments, quite apart from the injury or suffering it inflicted upon individuals, it was doing infinite mischief to one of Ireland's most prosperous and most necessary industries. He did not believe that it was a practice which had the approval of a single responsible leader of opinion, lay or clerical, throughout the length and breadth of Ireland. Difficult as the task of coping with it was, and there were peculiar difficulties, as they knew, it must be put down, and put down it would be."

IRISH LAND PROBLEMS.

LORD MACDONNELL'S POINT OF VIEW.

Lord Macdonnell, late Under-Secretary for **Ireland, expressed his view on the problem of Irish land purchase in the House of Lords on October 22nd, 1908 :**

He firmly believed that in coercion they had no substitute for land purchase; **in land purchase** they had a complete remedy, and **they should** endeavour to find the funds for it. **What was the** financial position in regard to **land purchase ?** In 1903 it was thought that **100 millions** would suffice, but experience had **shown** that 150 millions would be required **to complete** the work, and the root difficulty **was how** to provide the money. Up to now **twenty-five** millions had been provided, and **there** were agreements already deposited for **another** forty-five to fifty millions. How was **that** money to be found ? That money must **be paid** in cash, under the strict terms of the **Act**, but by the end of this month a time **would have** arrived when, in his opinion, a different course must be pursued in respect of land **purchase** finance.

If the balance of the bonus fund, amounting **now** to four or five millions sterling, was **allocated** for the flotation of loans, the Government **would** be able to pay off the forty-five **millions** of deposited agreements, and would **then** be in a position to consider what new **arrangements** should be made in the future. **For** the future it would be impossible to pay **the** landlords in cash, but a scheme might be **devised** under which a loan at 3 per cent. **could** be floated.

The result would be that the landlords would **receive** one to two years' purchase less than **they** had received hitherto, but it never was **expected** by the promoters of the Act of 1903 **that** prices would have gone as high as they **had.** The average purchase was expected to **be about** twenty-two years, and with the bonus **twenty-five** years. The only thing required **to make** the arrangement complete was that **the** Treasury should be a contributing party. **If the** landlord and the tenant both contributed **something**, it was only fair that the Treasury **should** contribute towards a national settlement.

If the Treasury would give a bonus of the **same** amount as was given now—for there should be no differential treatment as between **landlords** selling now and in the future—the **bonus** should be increased by a Treasury **advance** of £6,000,000. More would thus be **done** for the peace of Ireland than by any **number** of Coercion Acts. His experience in **the West** of Ireland had burned this into his **soul**—that coercion would only exasperate the **people**, who were now stretching out their hands **in amity** to this country in the hope that a long **lasting** peace might dawn upon them.

Mr. John Redmond's view is that there **were** three phases of the Irish land question—**first**, the financial aspect; secondly, the **question** of the general improvement which **experience** had shown was necessary in the **frame-work** of the Land Act of 1903; and, thirdly, there were the questions of congestion and of the breaking up of the grazing lands.

The Government is introducing a Bill to deal with land purchase as we go to press.

IRISH CONGESTION.

The report of the Royal Commission on Congestion in Ireland, commonly known as the Dudley Commission from the name of the chairman (says the "Times") is nominally unanimous, but four only of the nine Commissioners sign it without reservations. The report proposes measures of the most drastic kind—**measures, as we believe, without parallel in the legislation of civilised European States.** The wholesale acquisition of land by compulsion for the purpose of "migrating" the tenants of "uneconomic" holdings to better farms, is the gist of their recommendations.

"**They advise that the whole of the province of Connaught, together with Donegal, Kerry, and possibly Clare, and about one-fifth of Cork, should be scheduled as a 'congested district,'** and that the Congested Districts Board should have the exclusive control and management of land purchase within this district, within which all direct sales from landlord to tenant should in future be forbidden.

"**One of the most startling proposals of the report is the constitution of this Board,** which is to possess powers such as no court of law known to the Constitution possesses over private property. It is not to be the nominated Board which has hitherto bought land by voluntary agreement. The Commission proposes to raise its number from eight to twenty, of whom no fewer than nine—almost one-half—are to be 'elected by the County Councils.'

"**The compulsion** which the Commissioners recommend **applies not only to the landlord's interest in tenanted land and to grasslands, even in his own occupation, but also to certain holdings held by tenants,** or even lately acquired by them as tenant-purchasers under the Land Purchase Acts, including 'the excess of any holding or holdings held by one tenant or tenant-purchaser above £100 valuation.' No person, save in some few exceptional cases, is to be permitted, it would seem, to own land of more than £100 a year valuation in the whole province of Connaught or in the rest of the scheduled area. If he does own it he is to be turned out.

"Even when all hitherto received ideas of ownership have been overturned by this provision, the Commissioners are constrained to own that the land which can be seized will be 'hardly sufficient' to provide for migration. The 'joint,' as one of the chairmen of the County Councils to be represented called it in his evidence, will not go round. The Commission accordingly came to the conclusion that the provision of land for landless men and the enlargement of existing holdings beyond the 'economic' standard would lead to the perpetuation of congestion, and ought, therefore, to be avoided."

A DISESTABLISHMENT CAMPAIGN.

FORTHCOMING GOVERNMENT PROPOSAL.

The Liberation Society (Caxton House, Westminster, S.W.), has resolved "**to enter on a vigorous national campaign for the removal of all State fetters from the religious life of the nation.**"

In a manifesto which has been prepared **by the Executive Committee it is stated** that "**the time** is now opportune for a strenuous **effort, to secure** religious equality, the great **legislative purpose** for which this society was **formed.** In the promise of his Majesty's **Government** to introduce in the next Session of Parliament a Bill for the **Disestablishment of the Church of England in Wales** there is **ample** acknowledgment of the justice of the **claim** of the Welsh people to be freed from the **anomalies** and the grievances to which they **have** been too long subjected. But the **promised** Bill, although unanimously supported **by** the Welsh members of Parliament, is not **likely** to become law unless Parliament is **convinced** that there is a widespread movement in its favour in all parts of the Kingdom. **This** lays upon all supporters of the principles of religious equality a grave responsibility; **and** the need for immediate and resolute action **is urgent.**

"So far as England is specially concerned **there** is at the present time **a definite and urgent call for complete equality.** The highest **interests** of religion, national education, and **social** and political progress demand a great **forward** movement in this direction. Of the need of this movement there is ample evidence in the recurring strife for denominational control of the elementary schools, involving the distraint of the goods and the imprisonment of a large number of citizens; in the open and covert threats of many dignitaries and clergy to disobey the law of the land; in the consciousness of political and social reformers that their beneficent projects are indefinitely postponed because vested interests identify the vast majority of the clergy of the State Church with one political party; in the Resolution of the House of Commons, that Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Church of England are desirable in the interest alike of religion and the nation; in the admission of Bishops and others that the spiritual life of the Church would be advanced by Disestablishment."

The latest division on the Disestablishment question in the House of Commons was taken **on February** 27th, 1907, when **Mr. R. L. Everett moved**: "That in the interests alike of **religion** and the nation, it is desirable to disestablish and disendow the Church of England **both** in England and Wales." This **Resolution was carried** by 190 votes to 90.

In 1895 **a Welsh Disestablishment Bill** was **read** a second time by 306 to 264 votes, but the Government which had charge of it shortly **afterwards** resigned. The late Prime Minister **promised** that a Disestablishment Bill for Wales **should** be introduced in the **Session of 1909.**

Mr. Asquith, replying to a deputation in **favour** of Welsh Disestablishment (July 23rd, 1908) said:

"He sat a year ago with the late Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman in that room, listening to the deputation of Welsh members, and he then said he would regard it not only as a matter of disappointment but of reproach if this Parliament came to an end before a Disestablishment Bill had been carried through the House of Commons. He thought so still. It was their hope, and it was their intention, to submit next Session to Parliament proposals dealing with this matter. That hope might be frustrated, and their intentions might be defeated. If they were, it would not be through any act or default of theirs. It was hopeless to depict what the fortunes or the progress of the Bill might be, but he thought they would be satisfied to have the House of Commons put in possession of their proposals before the end of next Session."

CHURCH COMMISSION.

A Welsh Church Commission was appointed on June 22nd, 1906, "to inquire into the origin, nature, amount, and application of the temporalities, endowments, and other properties of the Church of England in Wales and Monmouthshire, and into the provision made and work done by the Churches of all denominations in Wales and Monmouthshire for the spiritual welfare of the people, and the extent to which the people avail themselves of such provisions, and to report thereon." The commission was constituted as follows: Lord Justice Vaughan Williams (Chairman), Lord Hugh Cecil, Sir John Williams, Mr S. T. Evans, K.C., M.P., Mr. Frank Edwards, M.P., the Rev A. M. Fairbairn, D.D. (Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford), the Ven. Archdeacon Owen Evans (Carmarthen), Mr. J. E. Greaves (Lord Lieutenant of Carnarvonshire), and Professor H. Jones (Professor of Moral Philosophy, Glasgow University). The Secretary of the Commission was Mr. R. M. Thomas (Town Clerk, Carmarthen). Mr. Evans, Professor Jones, and Dr. Fairbairn resigned—owing to differences with the Chairman—and Sir D. Brynmor Jones, Rev. T. Morgan Gibbon, and Mr. T. H. Davis were appointed in their places.

SUNDAY.

Viscount Hill has introduced into the House of Lords a **Weekly Rest Day Bill,** which provides that each person who is working for an employer shall have the twenty-four hours of Sunday as a rest day in each week, or when Sunday labour is necessary that he or she shall have one Sunday of twenty-four hours uninterrupted in a fortnight and a rest-day during the intervening period. Special exemptions are provided, applicable, among others, to Jews and those engaged in domestic service. The noble Viscount declared that the measure, if passed into law, would inflict no hardship on employers or employed. At the same time every worker would be assured of one day's rest in seven.

The Bill was withdrawn, and information is to be obtained on what other countries are doing in this matter.

GERMANY'S FINANCE.

£25,000,000 of new annual taxes have to be raised to meet the necessities of the German Imperial Expenditure, except a sum of £1,400,000, which is to come from the "matricular contribution."

The £25,000,000 is to be got thus:

	£
Sale of spirits	5,000,000
Excise on tobacco	3,850,000
" beer	5,000,000
Wine	1,000,000
Death duties	4,600,000
Electricity and gas	2,500,000
Newspaper advertisements	1,650,000
Matricular contribution ..	1,400,000
	£25,000,000

Death duties are to be raised in this way: Estates under £1,000 will not pay, but a maximum of 3 per cent. falls on estates of over £50,000. **Remote relatives** are to receive only a small portion of estates—the State steps in as heir. **Lapsed estates** are expected to produce £1,250,000 a year. Estates of **those who have not performed their military duties are to be surtaxed.**

"The disappointment which is felt by educated Germans at the poverty of the Imperial Exchequer, while the political position of the Empire has been so greatly aggrandised, is beginning to produce a new consequence," writes the "Spectator."

"They are discussing quietly the question whether the Empire might not be organised upon a cheaper basis. They will support it, whatever it costs, but they are weary of the weight of the taxes. They are asking whether their federal system does not necessarily involve a needless extravagance of expenditure.

"**Here are thirty or forty little dynasties with separate Ministries, Cabinets, and paid Parliaments, and therefore a total outlay in official salaries which, say those who favour the idea of complete unity, is more than the annual deficit,** the prospect of which so greatly shocks economical financiers. If Germany were made one for all purposes, as she now is for purposes involving international dispute, the deficit would be made good, the taxes might be made lighter, and the work of administration would be greatly simplified."

It is also suggested that the Post Office is excessively costly and unscientifically organised. Work which might be done by women is done by officials with a public school education. The Prussian State Railways are also said to be unnecessarily luxurious.

The Prussian Diet has to raise an extra £10,000 a year, which will be **required to cover the cost of increased pay to State officials, schoolmasters, clergymen, and must be provided by increased taxation.** This taxation is to take the form of an increased tax upon incomes of over 7,000 marks (£350) a year, and a progressive tax upon the profits of trading and industrial corporations.

SECTION 2.
PARLIAMENT AND POLITICS.

ELECTIONS AND STATISTICS.

When Parliament was dissolved on January 8th, 1906, there was a Unionist majority of 74 members. After the General Election there was a Liberal majority of 354. The present majority is 340. The House of 670 members is thus made up:

Liberals	369	505
Labour	53	
Nationalists	83	
Unionists		165
Majority		340

The Liberal majority of 354 members were elected by a majority of 836,418 votes. Here are the figures showing the majorities for different parts of the country:

Division.	Liberal & Labour.	Unionist.	Majority.
ENGLAND:			
London	278,299	245,723	L 32,576
Boroughs	809,818	634,637	L 175,181
Counties	1,418,212	1,195,558	L 222,654
Total:			
ENGLAND	2,506,329	2,075,918	L 430,411
WALES	171,315	96,912	L 74,403
SCOTLAND	366,702	235,098	L 131,604
Total:			
Gt. BRITAIN	3,044,346	2,407,928	L 636,418
IRELAND	350,000	150,000	L 200,000
Total for U.K.	3,394,346	2,557,928	L 836,418

BY-ELECTION RECORDS.

The comparative by-election records of the present and last Government for their first two and a half years, are thus summarised by the "Liberal Magazine":

Party.	No. of contested By-elections—Politics previous to By-election.			No. of Gains.		
	C	L	Total	C	L	Lab. & Soc.
Last Tory Govt... [Nov., 1900–April, 1903]	19	7	26	2	6	—
Liberal Govt. .. [Feb., 1906–Aug. 1st, 1908]	11	29	40	8	—	2

"Two of these seats lost in 1906–8 (Cockermouth and Pudsey) were lost to Liberalism owing to third candidatures, and in addition to them the Tories have only won 6 seats out of 29 Liberal seats attacked. To secure a majority in the next House of Commons, the Unionists need to win something like one Liberal seat out of two."

GENERAL ELECTIONS.

Here is a table showing the party majorities at General Elections since 1885:

1885	L 172	1895	U 152
1886	U 116	1900	U 134
1892	L 40	1906	L 354

In Scotland the Liberal majorities have been: In 1886, 14; in 1892, 30; in 1895, 6; in 1906, 48.

FATE OF BILLS.

The King's Speech on January 29th, 1908, promised certain measures. Here is a list of them, and their fate up to November, 1908:

Licensing Bill, in the Lords; Education Bill, passed Second Reading; Eight Hours (Coal Mines), passed Second Reading; Town Planning, passed Second Reading; Valuation Bill, not introduced; Irish University, passed; Irish Land Bill, not introduced; Port of London, Committee of House; Children's Bill, passed; Scottish Land Values, returned to Commons from Lords; Old Age Pensions, passed; Small Landholders, rejected by Lords.

THE LABOUR M.P.'S.

There are 55 Labour M.P.'s in the House; 30 are paid by the Labour Party, and do not accept the Liberal Whip. Mr. A. Henderson is their Chairman. The miners in the House in future support the Labour Party (see page 45). There are 10 other Liberal and Labour M.P.'s who are not paid by the Labour Party, but by their own Trade Unions, or otherwise, and who do not belong to the "Labour Party."

The Labour Party Group (30) are these:

Barnes, G. N.	Macdonald, J. R.
Bowermann, C. W.	Macpherson, J. T.
Clynes, J. R.	O'Grady, J.
Crooks, Will.	Parker, J.
Curran, Pete.	Richards, T. F.
Duncan, Charles.	Roberts, G. H.
Gill, A. H.	Seddon, J. A.
Glover, T.	Shackleton, D. J.
Hardie, J. Keir.	Snowden, Philip.
Henderson, A.	Summerbell, T.
Hodge, John.	Thorne, Will.
Hudson, W.	Walsh, Stephen.
Jenkins, J.	Wardle, G. J.
Jowett, F. W.	Wilkie, Alex.
Kelly, G. D.	Wilson, W. T.

Miners' M.P.'s (14):

Abraham, William.	Johnson, John.
Brace, William.	Johnson, W.
Burt, Thomas.	Richards, T.
Edwards, Enoch.	Taylor, J. W.
Fenwick, Charles.	Wadsworth, W.
Hall, Fred.	Williams, John.
Haslam, J.	Wilson, John.

Liberal and Labour M.P.'s (11):

Bell, Richard.	Steadman, W. C.
Cremer, W. R.	Vivian, Henry.
Maddison, Fred.	Ward, John.
Nicholls, G.	Wilson, J. Havelock.
Richardson, A.	Victor Grayson (Socialist).
Rowlands, James.	

THE LABOUR PARTY.

THE OBJECTS IT HAS IN VIEW.

The Labour Party supports thirty members in the House of Commons.

The following are the officials of the Labour Party in Parliament:

Chairman: Arthur Henderson.
Vice-Chairman: George N. Barnes.
Senior Whip: George H. Roberts.
Junior Whip: Chas. Duncan.
Secretary: J. Ramsay MacDonald.
Assistant Secretary: James Parker.

The membership reported to the Conference at Belfast in 1907 was 998,338 (says the Labour Party Report). This year the total membership is 1,072,413. Last year the number of trade unions affiliated was 176; this year it is 181. Last year there were 83 trades councils and local labour parties affiliated; this year there are 92. The Independent Labour Party and the Fabian Society continue their affiliation, and their membership has increased from 20,885 to 22,267. Owing to the imposition of the Parliamentary levy, one of the co-operative societies affiliated last year has dropped out; the other, Tunbridge Wells, continues its affiliation.

The following table shows the growth of the Party since January, 1900:

Year.	Trades Unions.		Trades Councils and L.R.C.'s	Socialist Societies		Total.
	No.	Membership.	No.	No.	Members	
1900–1	41	353,070	7	3	22,861	375,931
1901–2	65	455,450	21	2	13,861	469,311
1902–3	127	847,315	49	2	13,835	861,150
1903–4	165	956,025	76	2	13,775	969,800
1904–5	158	885,270	73	2	14,730	900,000
1905–6	158	904,496	73	2	16,784	921,280
1906–7	176	975,182	83	2	20,885	998,338
1907–8	181	1,049,673	92	2	22,267	1,072,413

The membership of the Party now exceeds a million. The Parliamentary contribution has been increased from 1d. to 2d. per member.

The Labour Party in Parliament has agreed to hold joint meetings once a month, and special meetings as the officials think fit, with the **Trade Union Group**, and to renew the understanding arrived at between the Executive of the Party and the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress before the General Election that members and candidates of the two sections should not oppose each other.

Influence of the Party.—The Labour Party (says the Report) can claim to have watched diligently the advancement in the House of Commons of important measures, to have taken care that less important measures were not given precedence; and when they were introduced, it has materially amended them in the direction, first of all, of making their administration easier; and, secondly, of making their benefits more ample to the working classes. No industrial measure has left the House of Commons without being substantially amended by the Labour Party.

But the value of a party in the House of Commons cannot be measured merely by the big Bills it has introduced, amended, and helped to pass. That might be called its shop-window work. By putting questions, by working on committees, by interviewing Ministers, by moving resolutions, the Party manages to keep a certain group of interests before the attention of Parliament. By its independent attitude it prevents the neglect of interests which the other Parties do not find it convenient to attend to.

Objects of the Labour Party.—The object of the Labour Party was defined in a resolution which was carried at Hull in January, 1908 by 514,000 votes to 469,000. It was moved by Mr. J. J. Stephenson, of the Engineers' Union.

It ran: "That in the opinion of this Conference the time has arrived when the Labour Party should have as a definite object the socialisation of the means of production, distribution, and exchange, to be controlled by a democratic State in the interest of the entire community; and the complete emancipation of labour from the domination of capitalism and landlordism with the establishment of social and economic equality between the sexes.

The mover of the resolution said:

"When we had carried our remedial legislation as far as it was possible we would still be confronted by inequalities that could only be removed by the Commonwealth having charge of all the forces of the Commonwealth and owning them. Consider the scenes that were presented in our large cities: Piccadilly in London at midnight, the East End at midday, the unemployed at Tower Hill and on the Embankment; in Hull, Carr Lane from six in the evening, and the dock gates from six in the morning.

"To what were these spectacles due but to the private ownership of the means of life? Take another illustration with which we are familiar. The latest triumphs of shipbuilding and engineering were the Lusitania and the Mauretania. Go down for an hour into the stokeholds and see how men earned their bread. Here was the distribution of wealth exemplified. For every penny the coal-trimmers get as wages for their hard work, the landlord receives 35s. royalty rent on the coal."

Socialism, the Family, and Religion.—Mr. J. Ramsay MacDonald, M.P., moved the following resolution:

"That this Conference of the Labour Party repudiates the attack made on it on the ground that Socialism is antagonistic to the family organisation, and declares that the disintegration of the family which has been in progress for some generations is due to the creation of slums, the employment of children in factories, the dragging of mothers into workshops and factories, through economic pressure created by low wages of men, sweating, and other operations of capitalism. The Conference further declares that the attempt that has been made to make the Labour Movement appear to be antagonistic to religion is a deliberate perversion of the truth, and made for mean partisan purposes; it welcomes men and women of all religious beliefs, as it is a political movement dealing with State affairs, not religious beliefs."

This was carried.

Internationalism.—Mr. M. T. Simm (I.L.P.) moved the following:

"That this Conference, in reaffirming its strong adherence to the cause of international peace, sends greetings to the workers of all lands, and urges the importance of considering the question of formulating a policy of international action in the event of immediate danger or actual occurrence of war."

Labour Party Programme.—Among other resolutions carried at the last Conference of the Labour Party were resolutions in favour of an eight hours' day in all trades, revision of factory and workshop inspection, nationalisation of railways, safeguarding parents' right to have religious instruction given to their children, the abolition of the House of Lords, payment of members and election expenses, equal voting rights for men and women, a legal minimum wage, State loans for housing, Labour Party's Unemployment Bill, socialisation of the means of production, a minimum wage of 30s. for the London district, against the living-in system of shops.

INDEPENDENT LABOUR PARTY.

WHAT IT WANTS.

The objects of the Independent Labour Party, which has 765 branches, is to establish the Socialist State, when land and capital will be held by the community and used for the well-being of the community, and when the exchange of commodities will be organised also by the community, so as to secure the highest possible standard of life for the individual. In giving effect to this object it shall work as part of the International Socialist movement.

The programme of the Independent Labour Party is this:

The true object of industry being the production of the requirements of life, the responsibility should rest with the community collectively, therefore:

The land, being the storehouse of all the necessaries of life, should be declared and treated as public property.

The capital necessary for industrial operations should be owned and used collectively.

Work, and wealth resulting therefrom, should be equitably distributed over the population.

As a means to this end, we demand the enactment of the following measures:

1. A maximum of 48 hours working week, with the retention of all existing holidays and Labour Day, May 1st, secured by law.

2. The provision of work to all capable adult applicants at recognised trade union rates, with a statutory minimum of sixpence per hour.

In order to remuneratively employ the applicants, parish, district, borough, and county councils to be invested with powers to:

(a) Organise and undertake such industries as they may consider desirable.

(b) Compulsorily acquire land; purchase, erect, or manufacture buildings, stock, or other articles for carrying on such industries.

(c) Levy rates on the rental values of the districts, and borrow money on the security of such rates for any of the above purposes.'

3. State pensions for every person over 50 years of age, and adequate provisions for all widows, orphans, sick and disabled workers.

4. Free, secular, moral, primary, secondary and university education, with free maintenance while at school or university.

5. The raising of the age of child labour, with a view to its ultimate extinction.

6. Municipalisation and public control of the drink traffic.

7. Municipalisation and public control of all hospitals and infirmaries.

8. Abolition of indirect taxation and the gradual transference of all public burdens on to unearned incomes with a vew to their ultimate extinction.

The Independent Labour Party is in favour of adult suffrage, with full political rights and privileges for women, and the immediate extension of the franchise to women on the same terms as granted to men; also triennial Parliaments and second ballot.

The Chairman of the Independent Labour Party is Mr. J. R. Macdonald, M.P.,; **Secretary,** Mr. Francis Johnson, 23, Bride Lane, E.C.

GOVERNMENT REPORTERS.

The proposals of the Government with respect to the reporting of the Parliamentary debates, are these: There is to be a staff of ten reporters who will be servants of the House, and a chief of the staff. A full report of all speeches of all members is to be delivered at four o'clock on the afternoon of the day following that on which the debate takes place, but the power of correction of their speeches which members now enjoy is to be limited to some extent. The printing will continue to be done, as at present, under contracts made by the Stationery Department. The reporting is to be confined to debates in the House itself—it is not to extend to committees.

THE SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

The Chairman of the Social Democratic Party (Mr. John Moore), speaking at the Annual Conference at Manchester (April, 1908), defended the work of the Party thus:

"**It was our business to fight the Liberal and Tory alike.** Why, within ten minutes' walk of the hall where the Conference was meeting there were slums, such as Angel Meadow and those in Ancoats, where the death-rate was so terrible as to warrant them in describing it as the continual murder of the people from generation to generation. All around we found justification for the fight we were waging. We must carry on this fight with greater vigour in order to rouse the proletariat to a sense of the things around them, and to secure the land of Great Britain for their own welfare, and to make them feel that instead of being engaged in a sham battle, they were taking part in a real fight on behalf of themselves and their fellow-workers in other lands. The only victory worth fighting for was the victory of Social-Democracy in all countries."

A proposal that the S.D.P. should join the Labour Party in view of the fact that it had declared that its ultimate object was the realisation of Socialism, was rejected by 130 to 30 votes.

Mr. H. Quelch declared that the Labour Party was "undemocratic in character, the Parliamentary Group being the governing power; while there were good Socialists in the Parliamentary Group, that group was certainly not a Socialist instrument, and he objected to a Socialist party being tied to the heels of a non-Socialist party."

Socialism and Religion.—A resolution in the following terms on Socialism and religion, moved by Mr. Quelch, was carried without opposition:

"That, in view of the efforts of enemies of Socialism to create division and prejudice in the ranks of the workers by raising sectarian disputes, this conference definitely reaffirms the position always maintained by the International Social-Democracy, that the Socialist movement is concerned solely with secular affairs, and regards religion as a private matter."

The resolution was seconded and carried nem. con.

Social Democratic Party. Secretary: Mr. H. W. Lee, 21a, Maiden Lane, W.C.

ROYAL COMMISSIONS.

Royal Commissions are now sitting for the following purposes:

1. **Poor Law.—To inquire into the working of the laws relating to the relief of poor persons in the United Kingdom. Chairman:** Lord George Hamilton.

2. **Canals.—To inquire into the canals and inland navigation of the United Kingdom. Chairman:** Lord Shuttleworth.

3. **Miners.—To inquire into and report on certain questions relating to the health and safety of miners** and the administration of the Mines Acts. **Chairman:** Lord Monkswell.

4. **Vivisection.**—To inquire into and report upon the practice of subjecting live animals to experiments. **Chairman:** Viscount Selby.

5. **Church in Wales.**—To inquire into the origin, nature, amount, and application of the temporalities and endowments of the Church of England in Wales, and the work done by the Churches of all denominations in Wales. **Chairman:** Lord Justice Vaughan Williams.

6. **Land Transfer.**—To consider the working of the Land Transfer Acts. **Chairman:** Viscount St. Aldwyn.

7. **Ancient Monuments.**—Commissions are also sitting to report on the ancient monuments of England and Wales and Scotland.

SECRET DIPLOMACY.

Mr. H. M. Hyndman, at the annual meeting of the Social Democratic Party, moved the following **resolution against secret diplomacy:**

"That this conference of the Social Democratic Party declares strongly against any continuance of the system of secret diplomacy as wholly undemocratic and dangerous, tending to the support of despotism abroad, and the maintenance of corruption and intrigue at home, and as in all cases detrimental to the interests of the mass of the people."

INTERNATIONAL HOSPITALITY.

Mr. Lloyd George says that "one of the first questions he addressed himself to at the Exchequer was to devise a means of **organising our international hospitality on some more regular basis.** He knew perfectly well that it was not his business to increase expenditure, and he had very serious obligations cast upon him, but he did not regret them, as they were all in the direction of improving the condition of the people. Nevertheless, he thought that a great country like this could do something in the way of the official promotion of international good will. He consulted the Prime Minister and the Foreign Secretary, and they both agreed with him that a certain sum should be set apart specifically for this purpose."

WOMEN'S LABOUR LEAGUE.

The National Women's Labour League has for its object: To form an organisation of women to work for independent labour representation in connection with the Labour Party, and to obtain direct labour representation of women in Parliament and on all local bodies. It will hold its conference at the same time as the Labour Party.

The committee feel that there are encouraging signs of the need for such a league among women of the Labour Party, and they hope that its work may be much developed during the coming year by the co-operation of all who believe that women have an important and useful part to play in politics, which entails serious study and much hard work. It has passed a resolution in favour of Old Age Pensions at 60, seeing that suicide is illegal and starvation (which is allowed by the State) is not desired by the individual.

Mrs. Mary Middleton, Hon. Sec., 8, Jedburgh Street, Clapham, S.W.

THE SECOND CHAMBER PROBLEM.

THE UPPER CHAMBER IN FOREIGN STATES.

The House of Lords contains 608 members, of whom 483 are hereditary, and 125 non-hereditary. Thus:

HEREDITARY.

Peers sitting in succession	439	
Elected by Scottish Hereditary Peers	16	
Elected by Irish Hereditary Peers ..	28	
Total Hereditary	——	483

NON-HEREDITARY.

Peers—the first of their line	94	
Life Peers	5	
Archbishops (2) and Bishops (24) ..	26	
Grand Total		608

Mr. Balfour and the House of Lords.—**Mr. Balfour**, speaking at Dumfries on October **6th, 1908**, gave expression to his views on the **relative** position and work of the **House of Lords** and the House of Commons.

"**It is the House of Commons, not the House of Lords, which settles uncontrolled our financial system,**" he said. "It is the House of Commons, and not the House of Lords, which determines by its vote whether such and such a Minister should continue to have such a measure of general confidence as would justify the Sovereign in further employing him. Make the House of Lords a representative Chamber, and do you think they are going to be content with that rôle? Do [you] think that they, any more than these [fo]reign chambers, are going to permit the other House (as it is commonly, though inaccurately, described, the Lower House) to have uncontrolled sway in all these matters?

"**The Senate in the United States** is the most powerful body in the United States; and depend upon it, if you have an elective Second Chamber in this country, you will find that they would not be content to play second fiddle to the House of Commons; while a Minister like Mr. Lloyd-George, who can, as I think (and I am in favour of the present system), rightly defy as a Minister a vote of censure pa[ss]ed in the existing Second Chamber, would be [i]n no such happy independence of the view of any Second Chamber brought into existence [in acc]ordance with the principle that he appar[ent]ly desires to see accepted—namely, the elective system.

"**I am a House of Commons man.** I desire to see the House of Commons the leading legislative and executive authority in the Kingdom. **I should contemplate with some dismay a co-equal elective Chamber**; but what neither I nor any other thinking man will ever tolerate **in this country is an uncontrolled power in the House of Commons** to be allowed to deal with details and forced to pass undiscussed measures of the utmost importance without some Chamber in which their proceedings can be reviewed, and which shall have the power ultimately and in the long run of appealing to the final arbiter of all our destinies, the public opinion of this great country."

A Select Committee under the presidency of Lord Rosebery has been sitting "to consider further the suggestions which from time to time have been made for increasing the efficiency of the House of Lords in matters affecting legislation, and to report as to the desirability of adopting them, either in their original or some modified form."

The House of Commons demanded a report on the composition and functions of the Second or Upper Chambers of Parliament in foreign States. Our representatives abroad were instructed to provide such information, and it has now been issued, and is a mine of information on the subject (Cd. 3,824; 9d.). It contains seventeen reports concerning nineteen Second Chambers. Some have an hereditary basis, though none except the English House of Lords has a practically exclusively hereditary basis; and the others are elective or nominative.

The Austrian Herrenhaus has from 248 to 268, the number depending on the number of life members. The hereditary members are the Imperial princes, certain landed nobles, 10 archbishops and 7 bishops. The life members, 150 to 170 in number, are nominated by the Emperor for distinguished service in politics, art, science, or to the State or Church.

The Hungarian House of Magnates has certain hereditary members, others who sit by right of office, not more than 50 life members by Royal appointment, and others who are elected.

The Prussian Herrenhaus has certain hereditary representatives, representatives elected by the smaller landowners, and ecclesiastical chapters for life. Other life members represent the universities, and are chosen by the senates or town councils. The King also nominates life peers, of whom there are 62.

Working-men in the Second Chamber.—Würtemberg is the only State in which the working-class have representatives in a Second Chamber. The full house comprises 50 members, consisting of the Royal princes; 19 nobles; 6 life members, appointed by the King; 8 representatives of the lower nobility; 6 ecclesiastical representatives; 2 university representatives; and **5 representatives of industrial interests—2 chosen by traders, 2 by agriculturalists, and one by the artisan class.**

The Italian Senate appears to be the largest of the elective Second Chambers. It contains 341 members, and is composed of members appointed for life by the king. The number is unlimited.

The French Senate has 300 members, elected by the Departments and Colonies. They are elected for nine years, but a third part is renewed each three years.

The United States Senate has 90 members, or 2 for each State; they are elected by the State legislatives. One-third of the Senate is renewed each two years. It is a permanent body, and has been in existence continuously since its creation.

The Belgium Senate consists of 110 members, elected for eight years, half being re-elected each four years.

IRISH AND SCOTCH HOME RULE.

THE OUTLOOK IN PARLIAMENT.

The Irish Party is still insistent for Home Rule. The outlook for that policy is indicated by Mr. J. Redmond and Mr. Birrell. The House of Commons, on March 30th, 1908, carried Mr. Redmond's Home Rule resolution by 313 to 157 votes.

Mr. Birrell said: "Of course, the Liberal party is a Home Rule party. At the last election a number of persons, including myself, gave what amounted to a substantial promise. Although I was anxious to avail myself of every practical opportunity of carrying through an amendment of our relations with Ireland in that respect, I never disguised from the electors of North Bristol that, having regard to the vast number of questions before the electors at that time, I was fully persuaded it would be impossible to expect the Parliament to be elected to devote, at any rate, the whole [illegible] one Session to the introduction and pa[illegible] through this House of Home Rule.

"It would involve, unless the House of Lords altered its mind, another election, and therefore it was outside practical politics to enter into consideration of the question. I am not prepared to say how far it was wise or foolish to give such a pledge. I am bound to say I shall not do it again, for reasons which I think will commend themselves to some people's minds. But the pledge has done nobody any harm; it has not done Ireland any harm. It is not in the power of anybody to say how or to what extent Home Rule can be made a practical issue at the next election. But I am persuaded that the Liberal party will maintain the position they have occupied as strong advocates of Home Rule."

Mr. Redmond's view is this: "Certainly one of the main outstanding facts of that discussion the other night was that the Liberal party by an enormous majority and the Liberal Government of the day unanimously declared in favour of full—as we understand the phrase—Home Rule as accepted by Parnell, in contradistinction to the policy of step by step, or devolution. Now, the speeches which were made on behalf of the Government by Mr. Asquith and Mr. Birrell were, of course, very bad. . . . But do not let us exaggerate the case. Both of them declared—what could not have surprised any intelligent man—that in this Parliament the Government would not introduce a full Home Rule Bill in the sense in which we understand it. I say nobody ought to have been surprised at that, because we know that not only a large number of Liberal members who were returned to Parliament, but a large number of the present members of the Government, had pledged themselves before the elections to the effect that, although they were in favour of the principle of Home Rule, they could not deal with the Home Rule question effectively in this Parliament.

"We now know that it rests not with them—the Government—that they will not put Home Rule in the forefront unless pressure is brought to bear on them. We know it rests with Ireland, and Ireland herself, to determine whether Home Rule is to be one of the foremost issues at the next General Election. We now know that Ireland, and Ireland alone, can bring the necessary pressure to bear on the political situation. It is not with policies of despair or inaction that we can hope to bring the necessary pressure to bear on the Government. That, in my opinion, can only be done by a strong, willing, consistent, and combative movement—combative simultaneously in Parliament, in Ireland, and in the English constituencies.

"The real change in the situation and in our relations with the Government, in my judgment, takes this formula. It is, in my judgment, clearly the interest of Ireland to hasten a dissolution of Parliament. I think for us to assist the Government in remaining in office for the next three or four years, after the attitude they have taken up on the Home Rule question, would be the utmost folly, and, in my judgment, our policy towards the Liberal Government ought to be to force them, as far as we can, to as early a dissolution as possible, and we ought to take whatever measures in Parliament and out of it as may seem to us best to carry that out."

The Government of Scotland Bill was introduced in the House of Commons on May 26th, 1908, by Mr. Pirie, Liberal member for North Aberdeen.

"**The object of this Bill is to provide for the establishment in Scotland of a legislative body (to be called the Scots Parliament), and for the devolution to that legislative body of the power to make laws on matters exclusively relating to Scotland.**"

By the scheme of the Bill the subjects delegated to the Scots Parliament are specifically enumerated, and the Scots Parliament has no power to make laws on any other subjects. The executive power will continue vested in the Crown, and provision is made for the revival of the old Scottish Privy Council which existed before the Union. Power is given to the Scots Parliament to impose taxes other than duties of customs and excise, and arrangement is made for the adjustment of the financial relations between the Scots Parliament and the Imperial Parliament. The text begins thus:

Whereas the responsibilities [illegible] an ever-growing Empire, together with that demand for closer attention to domestic affairs which has arisen out of continually widening developments of industry and civilisation, have so increased the labours of the Imperial Parliament that devolution of its work has become necessary in the interest of efficient government:

And whereas **devolution can be best accomplished by the establishment of subordinate national Legislatures**, by means of which local affairs can be administered locally, thus removing the disabilities involved in a Legislature sitting out of a country whose local affairs it controls, whilst also facilitating a truer representation of the interests of the people by securing the services of representatives with greater knowledge of local affairs and interests:

ELECTORAL REFORM PROBLEM.

"THE GOVERNMENT'S BINDING OBLIGATION."

The Prime Minister, Mr. Asquith, outlined an important scheme of electoral reform to a deputation of sixty Liberal M.P.'s on May 20th, 1908.

"**To submit a really effective scheme for the reform of our electoral system before this Parliament came to an end was,**" he said. "a binding obligation on the Government. The present state of the law, with its artificialities, its unreasonable delays in obtaining the **qualification for the franchise, its indefensible classification of the categories of voters, and, above all, the power of double voting,** which **was at present** conferred upon the class which needed it least—all this urgently demanded **reform.** No Liberal Government, and no Liberal House of Commons, would be performing its duty if it did not make every **effort to get** rid of a system such as he had **described.**"

The deputation had come to press for **Woman Suffrage, and of this Mr. Asquith** said:

"It would clearly be within the competence of those present to seek to introduce by amendments, or by extensions, the object they desired. The Government could hardly resist such amendment, for the simple and sufficient reason that probably some **two-thirds of his colleagues in the Ministry were in favour of it.** If it were approved by the House, it could not be any part of the duty of the Government to oppose such an amendment, and therefore the matter must be left to the decision of the House. He must give them one word of warning, however; **it must be a distinct condition that any such proposed change must be a change upon democratic lines.** Subject to that condition he could not oppose such an amendment, even if he desired to do so, having regard to the state of opinion in the Liberal Party on this question. He pointed out that **a measure of woman suffrage such as he had touched on, to be accepted must have behind it the overwhelming support of the women of the country, no less than the support of men.**"

Opinion of the People.—Mr. Asquith on the **same day said:**

"**You cannot** achieve social reform worthy of the name so long as your political machinery is obsolete in form, and stamped with the marks of inequality and injustice, and does not respond readily and promptly and persistently to the real will and genuine wishes of the people.

"I am strongly of opinion that before the days of this Parliament, if its career is not tragically interrupted by some unforeseen and unforeseeable disaster, I hope and believe that we shall not, indeed, complete, but we shall take another long step in advance on the road of political reform in removing from our electoral system those grave anomalies and abuses which render it now so inadequate and untrustworthy an exponent of the real opinion of the people."

Three Necessary Steps.—Prof. J. H. B. **Masterman says in** his history of "The House **of Commons" that three steps yet remain to be taken "before we can claim in England that our House of Commons is in the fullest sense representative of the people of this country:**

"(1) **The extension of the franchise to that** large class of the community that pays **taxes** like the rest of us, and to which is committed the chief share of educating the citizens of the future. (2) We cannot claim to be really possessed of a representative system until such measures are taken as shall **make it possible for the poorest man in England to devote his services to the public welfare, if** the public calls him to do so. (3) **If the public is really to be in effective control over its own destinies, there must be some kind of way** whereby the verdict of the public **on certain** great issues can be taken in **case of need; that some kind of referendum is a necessary** element in any really **democratic community.**"

UNEQUAL M.P.'s.

The 680 Members of the British Parliament by no means represent an equal number of electors. Kilkenny, for instance, is able to elect an M.P. with **1,541 electors;** while all the **35,768** electors of Wandsworth are also only represented by one M.P. **A vote in Wandsworth has only a twentieth part of the value of a vote in Kilkenny!**

There are **26 boroughs** in Great Britain which have less than 5,000 electors each. On the other hand, Bath, with only **8,024** electors, elects two M.P.'s

The largest constituency is the Romford Division of Essex, which has 49,065 electors. There a vote is only worth one-thirtieth of the value of a vote in Kilkenny with its **1,541** electors.

The largest borough constituency **is** Newcastle, which has two M.P.'s and **37,380** electors.

Between 1907 and 1908 **Romford** increased its votes by **1,424**; **Newcastle** decreased **its** votes by 28, and **Bath** by 195.

SMALL CONSTITUENCIES.

These 26 boroughs in Great Britain (19 in England, 3 in Wales, and 4 in Scotland) have less than 5,000 electors:

LIBERAL (16).

Whitehaven	2,970
Penryn and Falmouth	3,049
Montgomery District	3,360
Pontefract	3,387
Grantham	3,457
Salisbury	3,464
King's Lynn	3,688
St. George's-in-the-East	3,708
Flint District	3,882
Dumfries District	3,887
Stafford	3,889
Boston	3,931
Whitechapel	4,136
Inverness District	4,393
Kidderminster	4,494
Denbigh District	4,878

TORY (10).

Durham	2,610
Bury St. Edmunds	2,728
Wick District	2,841
Winchester	3,054
Windsor	3,295
St. Andrew's District	3,335
Taunton	3,799
Canterbury	3,931
Hereford	3,950
Shrewsbury	4,819

There are only 5 county constituencies in Great Britain having less than 5,000 electors. Of these, one (Rutland) is in England, the rest in Scotland:

Sutherland	2,816
Bute	3,595
Peebles and Selkirk	3,905
Caithness	3,928
Rutland	4,012

HOW TO GET VOTES.

Parliamentary Elections.—At present there are three ways in which residence gives the Parliamentary vote.

1. **As a householder**, you must have occupied a house or houses in the same Parliamentary borough or division for **twelve months preceding July 15th.** You may have removed once, or oftener, but so long as each house occupied is within the borough or division, you are entitled to the franchise "in succession." Any person who separately occupies part of a house as a dwelling—and where the landlord has no control over the part of the house so occupied—is entitled to be registered.

2. **As a lodger**, you must have occupied rooms in the same house for twelve months preceding July 15th. The annual value of the rooms, unfurnished, is fixed by the law at £10. A son living at home with his parents may claim when by ageeement with his father he is the sole occupant of a room in the house and might if he chose lock it up and prevent any further member of the family from entering. Every man over twenty-one, who has a right to the exclusive use of a room or rooms of the required annual value in his parents'—or any other—house, should therefore claim to be put on the register as a lodger. **In all cases lodgers must claim every year.**

3. **The Service Franchise.**—Bank managers, schoolmasters, railway men, caretakers, servants, and others who occupy rooms or houses rent free on their employers' property are entitled to this franchise provided their employers do not live in the same house.

Town and County Council Elections.—All persons registered as occupiers in Divisions 1 and 3 are entitled to vote for Town and County Councils. These are occupiers of dwelling houses or business premises whose names are on Division 1 and occupiers of premises of less than £10 annual value, peers and women occupying premises irrespective of annual value whose names are on Division 3.

The last day for handing in claims to the overseers by lodgers on last year's list is July 25th; and by occupiers, and lodgers claiming for the first time, August 20th.

PARLIAMENTARY ELECTORS.

Over 7,500,000 persons are entitled to vote at Parliamentary elections in the United Kingdom.

Country.	Population in 1901.	Inhabited houses in 1901.	County Voters.	Borough Voters.	University Electors	Total for 1908.	Total for 1907.
England and Wales..	32,527,843	6,260,852	3,486,070	2,553,398	19,426	6,058,894	6,000,933
Scotland	4,472,103	926,914	432,976	307,859	22,026	762,861	754,862
Ireland	4,458,775	858,158	571,857	116,006	4,863	692,726	690,841
Grand Total ..	41,458,721	8,045,924	4,490,903	2,977,263	46,315	7,514,481	7,446,636

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

Lord Courtney has introduced a Bill into the House of Lords—the Municipal Representation Bill—which would give proportional representation in municipal elections.

Lord Crewe, in speaking on the Bill, said "that it was of a very tentative and permissive character, and if passed into law would not in itself involve any important legislative change. There was no doubt that so far as the municipal authorities were concerned, there was something in the nature of a distinct grievance which might be remedied. In the Metropolitan Boroughs the whole of the councillors were elected every three years, and the result was that on certain occasions there had been a very sweeping change in the composition of the council. In the provinces a third of the members of a Borough Council were returned every year, and that involved a much more gradual alteration of the composition of those bodies and a gradual probability of something like a continuous policy being carried out.

"As it was hoped to see the same plan employed for the purpose of Parliamentary elections, the Government must guard themselves by making it clear that they did not either say or deny that this plan was one which ought to be adopted, supposing any plan was to be adopted, for the purpose of meeting the difficulties of representation on a larger scale."

The Proportional Representation Society, 28, Martin's Lane, E.C., seeks:

1. To reproduce the opinions of the electors in Parliament and other public bodies in their true proportions. 2. To secure that the majority of electors shall rule, and all considerable minorities shall be heard. 3. To give electors a wider freedom in the choice of representatives. 4. To give representatives greater independence from the financial and other pressure of small sections of constituents. 5. To ensure to parties representation by their ablest members.

It proposes to do this by uniting existing constituencies into larger ones, returning three or more members each; give each constituency so formed members proportionate to its electorate, the total number of the House of Commons being the same as at present, or smaller.

WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE.

SOCIETIES FOR AND AGAINST IT.

The question of women's suffrage has been a very prominent one in the past year. There are a number of societies doing active propagandist work. Many of these are federated into "**The National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies,**" of which Mrs. Fawcett is the President (25, Victoria St., S.W.). A statement on the leading incidents in the suffrage struggle, prepared by this society, will be found on another page.

The more militant society is known as the "**Women's Social and Political Union,**" and supplies us with the following statement of its objects:

WOMEN'S SOCIAL UNION.

The Women's Social and Political Union declare that they are asking for **votes for women on the same terms as they are possessed by men.** They are not asking for the vote for all women, since it has not yet been granted to all men; they are merely asking that those women who would be entitled to vote were they men, shall not be debarred from so doing by reason of their sex. They are demanding, in other words, that the principle of "No taxation without representation" shall be enforced, and that all those who pay taxes, both women as well as men, shall be duly represented in the legislature of the country.

Under the existing franchise, they say, men who pay rates and taxes, who are owners, occupiers, lodgers, or who have the service or university franchise, possess the Parliamentary vote; if the claim made by the Women's Social and Political Union is conceded, then those women who fulfil these same conditions will be placed on the Parliamentary Register also. Married women will obtain the vote provided they possess the necessary qualifications; thus, when a married woman and not her husband is the householder, or when a woman is in business on her own account, she will become a voter.

It is calculated that if this demand is met, about a million and a half women will possess the vote, in addition to the seven and a half million men who are at present enfranchised.

The methods adopted by the Women's Social and Political Union differ from those employed by the older suffrage societies in that they are of an "unconstitutional," or "militant," nature, and are directed solely against the Government in power. These methods, which are based on acceptance of the fact that Governments yield only in response to pressure, consist of:

(a) Opposition to the Government nominee at by-elections.

(b) Demonstrations at Westminster and elsewhere.

(c) Protests at meetings addressed by Cabinet Ministers.

In the first ten months of 1908 the **W.S.P.U. collected over £16,620** as compared with the £7,000 collected the previous twelve months; of this, £7,000 was the result of the "self-denial week" held by the Union in February.

The Union publishes a special paper, "**Votes for Women,**" which appears every Thursday, price 1d., besides a large number of books and pamphlets dealing with the Women's Movement. Public "at homes" are held every Monday afternoon in the Queen's Hall, and every Thursday evening in one of the other London halls.

Mrs. Pankhurst is the founder of the Union, Mrs. Pethick Lawrence is Treasurer, and Miss Christabel Pankhurst is Organising Secretary. Office: 4, Clement's Inn, W.C.

SUFFRAGE LEAGUE.

A Liberal Women's Suffrage League has been formed. The aims of the League, as set forth in the constitution adopted, are:

To promote within the Liberal Party the claim of women to the franchise.

To help at elections and by-elections Members of Parliament who are in favour of women's suffrage.

To help Liberal women at municipal elections and elections for Poor Law guardians.

Another clause runs:

During the election of a Liberal member who is opposed to the suffrage the League and its members shall abstain from working against the Liberal candidate.

The Honorary Secretary of the League is Mrs. J. J. Findlay, and the Honorary Treasurer Mrs. A. Porter.

ANTI WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE.

A National Women's Anti-Suffrage Association has been formed.

"They hold it to be of fundamental importance that the spirit of sex antagonism aroused by the women's suffrage propaganda should be combated by "recognition of the fact that the respective spheres of men and women are neither antagonistic nor identical, but complementary." While supporting the concession of the municipal vote, they hold that to confer the Parliamentary franchise on women of property would inspire such discontent in the unenfranchised women that a wholesale enfranchisement of women would inevitably follow, "with the result that (under adult suffrage) the voting women would outnumber the voting men by a majority greater than often decides the relative position of parties after a General Election."

They further point out that political equalisation of the sexes would involve the qualification of women for Parliament and various offices under the Crown—a result inconsistent with the physical conditions of female life and calculated to impair woman's influence in the home sphere. Furthermore, they contend that women could not undertake the women's physical responsibilities of enforcing any law which they might cause to be enacted by their votes.

This document is signed by, amongst others, Lady Jersey, Lady Dorothy Nevill, Mrs. Humphrey Ward, and Mrs. Max Müller. Any communications should be addressed to the Acting Secretary, Hon. Ivor Guest, at 22, Arlington Street, S.W.

The Women's Suffrage Bill passed its Second Reading in the House of Commons on February 28th, 1908, by 271 votes against 92—majority 179.

Six Ministers, including Mr. Asquith, Mr. Harcourt, and Mr. Sinclair, voted against the Bill.

The Bill enacts that "he" in all Acts referring to voting shall include "she," and does not disqualify a married woman. Therefore it enfranchises:

(1) All women householders.

(2) All married women having real or house property of their own (not their husbands') or registered as the householder (e.g., where the husband takes the house in his wife's name in order not to be called as a juryman).

(3) All women lodgers (over twenty-one) who have exclusive use of rooms of a value of £10 a year unfurnished. Daughters may claim as lodgers in their parents' homes.

(4) Employees occupying a house or rooms rent free on their employers' property (e.g., caretakers), provided the employers do not live in the same house.

The total number of women thus to be enfranchised is given as about 1,250,000.

Mr. Israel Zangwill is an advocate of women's suffrage. "The truth," he says, "is that all the arguments against female suffrage would be beneath contempt were not the real opposition beneath consciousness. **The verbal reasons are Occidental, but the underlying psychology is Oriental.** The Eastern conception of woman's rôle is consistent—it is a man's world, and women exist primarily to bear men. But the Western conception is confused and transitional. Unless the West is prepared to revert to the Eastern order of things, the law of progress cannot be arrested. Between the harem and freedom there is no logical halting-place. Man has hitherto fixed the limits of woman's activity; she must now find and fix them for herself."

WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE ABROAD.

A glimpse at the progress of women's suffrage abroad is afforded by Mrs. Ida Harper, who attended the International Women's Suffrage Congress, which was held at Amsterdam in 1908. Writing to the "Independent," she said:

That Sweden, Norway, Iceland and Denmark have given the municipal franchise to women. The Netherlands will probably give it soon after the next election. Every possible justification seems to exist for saying that **the women of the Netherlands** will be enfranchised within the next five years. Judging from present indications, it will not be five years before the municipal franchise now **possessed by the women of Denmark and Sweden will be extended to include the Parliamentary vote. Those of Norway and Finland now have the complete suffrage and are eligible for election to Parliament.** The same is true of Australia and New Zealand, except that in the latter they have not eligibility.

All of the countries thus far mentioned have national woman suffrage associations and are affiliated with the International Alliance. Even where women are fully enfranchised they still maintain their organisation, in order to assist those of other countries. All sent delegates, and there were delegations also from Canada, Germany, Russia, Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Bulgaria, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, Great Britain, and South Africa. The governments of Australia and Norway sent official representatives, paying all their expenses, and each brought the greetings of her Prime Minister and his wish for the success of the alliance and its aims. Many countries reported some definite progress.

Italy told of the week's congress of its National Council of Women in April, when one entire session of this large body was devoted to a discussion of woman suffrage. Members of Parliament and judges of the highest courts joined the women in the affirmative, and there were only five negative votes on the resolution "The congress of Italian women calls upon Parliament to confer on women the administrative and political vote on the same terms as granted to men."

German women were very happy over the recent abolition by the Reichstag of the law forbidding women to join or organise political associations, and already they have organised seven States for woman suffrage. **In Austria** the law still prevails, and the women dare not form a suffrage society. **The Legislature of Natal** has granted the municipal franchise to women, but the Englishmen in South Africa are opposed to giving them the national suffrage on account of the large preponderance of Boer women. The question was presented during the past year in twenty-two national parliaments and twenty-nine State legislatures.

Nothing has been more evident at this convention that **the backward position of the United States** at the present time. Once the leader in all liberal measures relating to women, it has now fallen in the rear, and its Congress and legislatures, in their hostile attitude toward the political freedom of women, must now be classed with those of the non-progressive nations of the Old World. At our table each meal there have been over twenty delegates, representing five or six countries, and the American women were the only ones disenfranchised.

Universal interest now is focussed on Great Britain. It seemed to us that we never had seen a body of women physically and intellectually superior to the large English delegation to this Alliance Congress. None of them has yet reached middle life, and some are only a few years out of the university—strong, courageous, devoted women.

RESEARCH DEFENCE SOCIETY.

A Reseach Defence Society, of which Lord Cromer is President, has been constituted for the purpose of making known the facts with regard to experiments on animals in this country, as well as of setting forth the immense importance to the welfare of mankind of such experiments, and the great saving of human life and health which has already proceeded from them.

Mr. Stephen Pager, 70, Harley St., is the Honorary Secretary.

WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE DIARY.

SOME IMPORTANT INCIDENTS IN THE STRUGGLE.

The National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (25, Victoria Street, London, S.W.), of which Mrs. Henry Fawcett, LL.D, is president, has issued a statement of the leading facts of the movement for the Parliamentary enfranchisement of women. Here are some of the more important:

1866. Petition in favour of granting the Parliamentary franchise to women, presented to the House of Commons by John Stuart Mill, signed by 1,499 women.

1867. Mr. J. S. Mill's amendment to substitute "persons" for "man," in the Representation of the People Act, rejected by a majority of 121.

1868. At General Election 5,000 women in Manchester and many women in other places applied to be placed on the Parliamentary Register; the Court of Common Pleas decided against their claim.

1869. Full suffrage granted to the women of Wyoming (U.S.A.).

1873. Memorials from 11,000 women, presented to Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Disraeli, in favour of women's suffrage.

1881. Suffrage granted to women in the Isle of Man for the House of Keys.

1889. A protest against women's suffrage, signed by 106 women, appeared in the "Nineteenth Century" and called forth in less than a fortnight a counter-declaration in favour, signed by 2,000 women; of these, 600 representative names were published in the "Fortnightly Review."

1893. Full suffrage granted to women in New Zealand. Full suffrage granted to women in Colorado (U.S.A.).

1894. Full suffrage granted to women in South Australia.

1895. Equal suffrage granted to women in Utah (U.S.A.).

1896. An appeal to Members of Parliament from 257,000 women of all classes and parties. Full suffrage granted to women in Idaho (U.S.A.).

From 1870 to 1897. Bills or resolutions have been brought before the House of Commons almost annually. Thrice the Bill passed Second Reading: in 1870, when it was thrown out in Committee; in 1886, when a dissolution of Parliament took place before the Bill reached its Committee stage; in 1897, when the Committee stage was not reached. In this year 1,285 petitions were presented in favour of the Bill—800 more petitions than for any other Bill before the House that session.

1900. Full suffrage granted to women in Western Australia.

1902. Full suffrage granted to the women of Australia for the Federal Parliament. Full suffrage granted to the women of New South Wales. Petition presented to Parliament, signed by 750 women graduates of universities, asking for the Parliamentary franchise for women.

1903. Full suffrage granted to the women of Tasmania.

1904. A women's suffrage resolution, introduced by Sir Charles McLaren, passed the House of Commons by a majority of 114.

1905. Full suffrage granted to the women of Queensland.

1906. The women of Finland granted full suffrage with eligibility for election. A petition, signed by 1,530 women graduates of universities, holding degrees, or engaged in the learned, medical, scientific, and educational professions, was presented by Miss Mary Bateson to Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman.

1907. The Parliamentary franchise extended to the women of Norway, who already possessed the municipal franchise (this includes eligibility for election). Qualification of Women (County and Borough Councils) Bill passed. Qualification of Women (Scotland) Bill passed.

1908. Women of Iceland granted the right to sit on municipal councils. Municipal vote and eligibility for election granted to women in Denmark. Bill to enable women to vote at Parliamentary elections on the same terms as men, brought in by Mr. Stanger, M.P. (Kensington, N.). Passed its Second Reading by a majority of 179, and was referred to a Committee of the whole House. First National Suffrage Congress of Italian women held in Rome, attended by a thousand delegates from every part of Italy, the Queen, the Syndic of Rome, and the Minister of Education being present at the opening. Deputation (May 20th) of Liberal Members of Parliament to Mr. Asquith to ask for facilities for Mr. Stanger's Bill. In reply to this deputation, Mr. Asquith foreshadowed a Reform Bill, to which it might be possible to move a women's suffrage amendment.

ADULT SUFFRAGE.

Asked what were the estimated numbers in England and Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the United Kingdom respectively of each of the following classes of persons—Men over 21 years of age who are Parliamentary voters, men over 21 years of age who are not Parliamentary voters, and women over 21 years of age, Mr. Gladstone said (July 3rd):

"I fear that the materials for giving the precise information asked for do not exist. The table which follows is the nearest approach to it that I am able to make, but any calculation based on a subtraction of the figures in column one from those in column two would be vitiated by the fact that there are **no means of estimating how many plural voters are included in column one.** It is supposed that they may number about 784,000 in all, but this figure is not sufficiently reliable to be used for the purpose of statistics.

	Numbers of appearing on the registers of Parliamentary voters for 1908.	Estimated male adult population on January 1st, 1908.	Estimated female adult population on January 1st, 1908.
England & Wales	6,058,894	9,230,289	10,327,469
Scotland ..	762,861	1,233,893	1,377,241
Ireland ..	692,726	1,207,524	1,267,794
Total ..	7,514,481	11,671,706	12,972,504

PEOPLE OF TO-DAY.

BRIEF BIOGRAPHIES OF MEN AND WOMEN OF OUR TIME.

These biographies have been personally revised in nearly every instance, and the Editor is greatly obliged to those who have rendered him such assistance. He is also very grateful for the kind letters which have been sent him in connection with them.

ABBEY, Edwin Austin, R.A., Chelsea Lodge, Tite Street, S.W., a. 56; studied at Philadelphia Academy of Fine Arts. Stands in the foremost rank of Anglo-Saxon painters of historical and subject pictures. He has acquired great fame as an illustrator of Shakespeare and old English songs.

ABERDEEN, Countess of, Viceregal Lodge, Dublin, a. 52; a daughter of first Lord Tweedmouth, wife of 7th Earl of Aberdeen, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland; President of International Council of Women, Royal Irish Industries Association, Women's National Health Association of Ireland, and Onward and Upward Association. LL.D. Queen's University, Canada.

ABERDEEN, Earl of, Viceregal Lodge, Dublin, a. 61; head of the Gordons. Viceroy of Ireland; has been Viceroy of Canada; owns 58,000 acres as well as a ranch in Canada; was a close personal friend of Gladstone.

ABRUZZI, Duke of the, a. 36; Prince of Royal House of Italy; scientist, explorer, aeronaut, sportsman, littérateur; travelled round world as a youth; ascended Mount St. Elias, Alaska, 1896; his Arctic expedition in 1900 penetrated nearest to North Pole; in 1906 he ascended the topmost height in the Ruwenzori range; his alleged engagement to Miss Katherine Elkins, of New York, created a society sensation in 1908.

ACLAND, F. D., M.P., 118, Grosvenor Rd., S.W., a. 34; was private secretary to Mr. Haldane, and now Financial Secretary to the War Office.

ADLER, Very Rev. Dr. H., 6, Craven Hill, W., and Chief Rabbi's house, 22, Finsbury Square, E.C., a. 69. Chief Rabbi of the United Hebrew Congregations of the British Empire since 1891, in succession to his father; philanthropist, scholar, and author.

AERENTHAL, Baron Lexa von, a. 53; after 30 years in the Austrian diplomatic service, became Foreign Minister in succession to Count Goluchowski; responsible for the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

AIREDALE OF GLEDHOW, Lord, Gledhow Hall, Leeds, a. 73; head of the engine building and iron and steel manufacturing firm of Kitson and Co.; President National Liberal Federation for six years and of Iron and Steel Institute, 1889-90; a Privy Councillor; raised to the Peerage in 1907.

AKERS-DOUGLAS, Rt. Hon. A., M.P., Chilston Park, Maidstone, a. 57; Home Secretary 1902-5; formerly First Commissioner of Works, Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury, and Chief Conservative Whip.

ALBANI, Mme. (Mrs. Ernest Gye), Park House, Earl's Court Road, S.W., a. 56; at the age of 15 was the organist of a big New York church; made her operatic début at Covent Garden in 1872. She ranked second only to Patti as a prima donna, and has for long been the première oratorio singer in this country; has lately made a venture on the variety stage.

ALEXANDER, George, 57, Pont St., S.W., and Tollgate Cottage, Chorley Wood, Herts, a. 50; actor-manager; first appeared on stage in provinces 1879, joining the late Sir Henry Irving 1881. Opened Avenue Theatre for himself in 1890; lessee of St. James's Theatre since 1901. Member of London County Council.

ALLAN, Maud, Palace Theatre, W.C.; captured London in March, 1908, and held it captive for many months by her wonderful rendering of her own creation, "The Vision of Salome," and with her classical dances; published "My Life and Dancing." October, 1908.

ALLERTON, Lord, of Chapel Allerton, 27, Cadogan Square, S.W., a. 69; Chairman G.N.R., of which he is the genial and business-like dictator; educated himself; achieved great business triumphs; many years in Parliament as member for Leeds; succeeded Mr. Balfour as Secretary for Ireland; father of F. S. Jackson, who in 1905 successfully captained England against Australia in the Test Matches.

ALMA-TADEMA, Sir Lawrence, R.A., 34, Grove End Road, N.W., a. 73; son of a Dutch notary; studied at Antwerp, came to England 1870, elected R.A. nine years later, and knighted 1899; his pictures for the most part have classical subjects, are remarkable for brilliant colouring and elaborately truthful design; received the Order of Merit, 1905.

ALTHORP, Viscount, Dallington House, Northampton, a. 51; Lord Chamberlain in the Royal Household; was Vice-Chamberlain 1892-95; once told the Commons that he was not an agricultural labourer. Brother and heir of Lord Spencer.

ALVERSTONE, Lord, Hornton Lodge, Kensington, a. 66; Lord Chief Justice since 1900; thrice Attorney-General as Sir Richard Webster, and one of the leaders of the Bar; chief counsel for "Times" before Parnell Commission, and one of British representatives in Behring Sea and Venezuelan Arbitrations; Master of Rolls, 1900; famous miler at Cambridge; President Surrey C.C.

AMERY, L. Stennett, 2, Temple Gdns., E.C., a. 35; on the editorial staff of the "Times" since 1899, and edited the "Times" History of the South Africa War.

AMPTHILL, Lord, ex-Governor of Madras, acting Viceroy of India 1904, a. 39; a son of the famous ambassador, who was one of Bismarck's closest friends. Lord Ampthill was a great favourite of Queen Victoria, who interested herself personally in his career after the death of his father; was a famous 'Varsity

ANSON, Sir Wm., Baronet, M.P., Pusey House, Faringdon, Berks, a. 65; Warden of All Souls' College, Oxford; represents the University; late Parliamentary Sec. of Board of Education; bore a large part in the passing and administration of the Education Acts, 1902-3; has written works on Constitutional Law and the Law of Contract.

ARCHER, William, National Liberal Club, S.W., a. 52; a Scotsman who quitted the Bar for journalism, to become our foremost dramatic critic; has edited a collected edition of Ibsen's plays.

ARDILAUN, Lord, 11, Carlton House Terrace, S.W., a. 68; head of Guinness family; has bought famous Muckross estate, Killarney, formerly owned by his wife's uncle. Has four fine Irish residences.

ARGYLL, 9th Duke of, Kensington Palace and Roseneath, Dumbartonshire, a. 63; as Marquis of Lorne married H.R.H. Princess Louise, fourth daughter of Queen Victoria; Governor-General of Canada, 1878-83; has represented Argyll and S. Manchester; has published a Life of Queen Victoria, "Imperial Federation," "Passages from the Past" (1907).

ARNOLD-FORSTER, Rt. Hon. H. O., M.P., 2, The Abbey Garden, Westminster, a. 53; Sec. for War, 1903-6; formerly Parliamentary Sec. to Admiralty; grandson of Arn of Rugby; was adopted by his uncle, W. E. Forster; formerly a director of Cassell's; published (1908) "English Socialism of to-day."

ARROLL, Sir Wm., LL.D., Seafield, Ayr, a. 70; principal of firm of engineers which built Tay, Forth, and Tower Bridges, and is now widening Blackfriars Bridge.

ASCHE, Oscar, 22, Elm Tree Road, N.W., a. 36; actor; an Australian by birth and Norwegian by descent; toured with F. R. Benson; created the part of Maldonado in Pinero's "Iris" at the Garrick, 1901; produced "As you Like It" in 1907.

ASHWELL, Lena, 18, Cowley Street, Westminster; actress; created the title-rôle in "Leah Kleschna" at Wyndham's, 1904; and the principal character in Mr. H. A. Jones's "Mrs. Dane's Defence," 1900; has achieved great success in the management of the Kingsway, where she has produced "Irene Wycherley," "Diana of Dobson's," and "The Swayboat." Married (October, 1908) Dr. H. J. Forbes Simson.

ASQUITH, Rt. Hon. H. H., K.C., M.P., 10, Downing Street; Prime Minister of England and First Lord of the Treasury, succeeding the late Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman, April, 1908; a. 56; a Yorkshireman; followed up a brilliant career at Oxford by making an enviable reputation at the Bar; entered Parliament in 1886, relinquished a fine practice when appointed Home Secretary in 1892; afterwards he returned to the Bar. Made vigorous attacks on Mr. Chamberlain's policy, 1903-5; Chancellor of the Exchequer, 1905-8; introduced Old Age Pensions and the Licensing Bill, 1908; has, by general consent, displayed his intellectual powers to great effect in the leadership of the House. When receiving the hon. Oxford degree D.C.L. he was presented as "a distinguished alumnus of Oxford, and a powerful advocate. But as a politician, even more, if possible, than an advocate, he had proved his distinction, having been selected while still quite young by Mr. Gladstone—that prince among statesmen—for one of the high offices of State"; elected Lord Rector of Aberdeen, 1908.

ASTOR, Hon. Wm. Waldorf, Hever Castle, Kent, a. 60; owner of the "Pall Mall Gazette" and "Pall Mall Magazine"; a son of John Jacob Astor, of New York, and a man of great wealth; has sat in the New York Legislature, and acted as U.S.A. Ambassador to Italy before becoming a naturalised British subject in 1899; owns Hever Castle; has subscribed £20,000 to Oxford University.

AUSTIN, Alfred, Poet Laureate, Swinford Old Manor, Ashford, Kent, a. 73; called to the Bar at 22, but abandoned the law for literature; for many years a contributor to the "Standard" and "Quarterly Review"; succeeded Tennyson in 1896; his latest books are "Sacred and Profane Love," and "Haunts of Ancient Peace."

AUSTRIA, Emperor Francis Joseph I., a. 78; has reigned through 60 years of anxious cares and grievous domestic sorrow; the Empress Elizabeth was assassinated and his eldest son committed suicide; he advocated the simultaneous disarmament of the Powers of Europe just before the declaration of war of France in 1859; annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1908, a few months after his diamond jubilee had been celebrated, amid the congratulations of Europe; this act is regarded as a serious breach of the Berlin Treaty.

AVEBURY, Rt. Hon. Lord, P.C., 48, Grosvenor St., W., a. 74; best remembered as Sir John Lubbock; the most distinguished member of a talented family; by profession a banker, by practice scientist, littérateur, educationist; won Bank Holidays for the people; has worked for many years for shorter hours of labour, especially in shops. For. Sec. Royal Academy. Lord Rector St. Andrews.

BADEN-POWELL, Lieut.-Gen. R. S. S., C.B., 32, Princes Gate, London, S.W., a. 52; Inspector-General of Cavalry; the most accomplished scout in the British Army, and author of standard works upon this phase of warfare; held Mafeking against the Boers from a few days following the outbreak of the war until May 18th, 1900, the longest siege recorded in modern warfare; afterwards organised the South African Constabulary; now detailed to organise and train Territorial Forces in Yorkshire. Founded the organisation of "Boy Scouts" for developing good citizenship in the rising generation.

BAKER, Sir E. N., K.C.S.I., Belvedere, Calcutta, a. 51; Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal (appointed 1908); was the Viceroy's Finance Minister; a fine financier and one of the ablest administrators in the I.C.S.

BALFOUR OF BURLEIGH, Lord, K.T., 47, Cadogan Sq., a. 60; the title, attainted in connection with the Jacobite rising of 1715, was restored to the present holder; has presided over several Royal Commissions, and been Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade; Sec. for Scotland, with seat in Cabinet, 1895-1903; Lord Warden of the Stannaries.

BALFOUR, Rt. Hon. A. J., M.P., 4, Carlton Gardens, S.W., a. 60; late Prime Minister of England; acted with the "Fourth Party" in the 1880-5 Parliament; established his reputation as Chief Secretary for Ireland (1887-91); assumed the leadership of the Unionist Party in the House of Commons in 1892, and succeeded the late Lord Salisbury in the Premiership in 1902; a finished scholar, a brilliant debater, and a metaphysician; a man of letters who became a politician less from ambition than force of circumstances; is wealthy, a bachelor, and devoted to golf, in spite of his newer love, the motor-car: President of British Association, 1904. Published "The Foundations of Belief," 1895; delivered at Cambridge, 1908, a much-discussed lecture on "Decadence." Lost his seat at Manchester in 1906 election, and now sits for City of London.

BALFOUR, Rt. Hon. G. W., Fishers Hill, Woking, a. 55; Privy Councillor and late President of the Local Government Board; has been Chief Secretary for Ireland and President of the Board of Trade; is a brother of the late Premier, and married. Lost his seat in 1906.

BALL, Sir R., Observatory, Cambridge, a. 58; Lowndean Professor of Astronomy and Geometry at Cambridge; the most popular scientific lecturer of the day; one of the few men in the world who can invest abstruse subjects with fascinating interest; was Royal Astronomer of Ireland 1874-92.

BANCROFT, Sir Squire, 18, Berkeley Square, W., a. 67; one of four members of the theatrical profession to receive a knighthood; married, in 1867, the famous actress Mar Wilton, the present Lady Bancroft, who assisted him for twenty years to run the old Prince of Wales's and the Haymarket Theatres; realised a fortune, and was able to retire from management at the age of 44; since then has handed over to charities large sums from his public readings from Dickens.

BARCLAY, Sir Thos., 13, Old Sq., Lincoln's Inn, W.C., and 17, Rue Pasquier, Paris, a. 56; the man behind the Entente. A famous international lawyer, practising chiefly in Paris. Has done more than any other private individual to improve Anglo-French relations and to promote arbitration treaties. Is an officer of the Legion of Honour.

BARKER, H. Granville, National Liberal Club, S.W., a. 31; actor, playwright, manager, and lecturer; in 1904 joined Mr. J. E. Vedrenne in a notable management of the Court Theatre, presenting Bernard Shaw's plays and others by new dramatists of the intellectual school; the dual control was transferred to the Savoy in 1907. Mr. Barker's "Waste," a socio-political drama, was produced by the Stage Society in November, 1907; married (1906) Miss Lillah McCarthy; he is an active Socialist and a woman-suffragist.

BARNES, Rt. Hon. Sir J. Gorell, P.C., 14, Kensington Park Gardens, W., a. 60; the son of a shipowner, he made his name as the most able Admiralty Judge of our time. Succeeded the late Sir F. Jeune as President of the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division, 1905.

BARNETT, Canon, S. A., 3, Little Cloisters, Westminster, a. 64; one of the founders of Toynbee Hall, warden until 1906, and now president; the pioneer of university settlements; late Canon of Bristol Cathedral, now Canon of Westminster (1906); a keen social reformer. Author of "Service of God," "Religion and Progress" and (with his wife) "Practicable Socialism."

BARRIE, J. M., Black Lake Cottage, by Farnham, a. 48; novelist and playwright; born at Kirriemuir ("Thrums"), made journalism a half-way house to literature; his stories and novels—notably "A Window in Thrums," "The Little Minister," "Sentimental Tommy" and its sequel—have taken rank among the finest examples of the Scotch genius in fiction; achieved immense success in the drama, especially with "The Admirable Crichton" and "Peter Pan"; his latest comedy, "What Every Woman Knows," was among the dramatic events of 1908.

BARRY, Rev. Canon W. F., D.D., St. Peter's, Leamington, a. 59; Roman Catholic priest, and one of the most versatile of living authors. A persona grata at the Vatican, where he was present at the taking of Rome in 1870. Lecturer; novelist; master of a dozen languages; critic; social reformer.

BARRY, Sir John Wolfe, K.C.B., F.R.S., LL.D., 23, Delahay St., Westminster, a. 71; one of the foremost engineers of our day; his best known achievements include Barry Dock, Grangemouth Dock, Avonmouth Dock, Tower Bridge, Blackfriars Railway Bridge, and Kew Bridge, besides innumerable railway undertakings.

BEAUCHAMP, Earl, Madresfield Court, Worcestershire, a. 36; governor for 18 months of New South Wales; has a rich collection of art treasures; is Lord Steward and a prominent Liberal.

BEBEL, F. August, a. 68; the brilliant leader of the German Socialists in the Reichstag, in which he has sat for over 32 years. A political admirer bequeathed him £20,000. "Viewed in the light of his actual achievements he is easily the greatest living German engaged in public affairs. Out of straggling groups of despised, poverty-stricken workmen and labourers he has created a progressive party, having a compact vote of 3,000,000." ("Spectator.")

BEERBOHM, Max., 48, Upper Berkeley St., W., a. 36; a witty essayist and satirist; the most subtle and merciless of English caricaturists; ten years ago succeeded G. B. S. as dramatic critic of the "Saturday Review."

BELL, C. F. Moberly, 22, Park Crescent, Portland Place, W., a. 61; represented the "Times" for nearly a quarter of a century in Egypt; has managed it with conspicuous ability since his return to England in 1890.

BELL, Richard, M.P., 115, Brownlow Road, New Southgate, N., a. 49; represents in the House half a million railway workers; was one himself prior to his election as Gen. Sec. of the Amal. Ry. Servants; is the son of a Welsh police sergeant; elected M.P. for Derby 1900.

BELL, Sir Hugh, Bart., 95, Sloane St., S.W., and Rounton Grange, Northallerton, a. 64; managing director of Bell Bros., Ltd.,

Clarence Ironworks, Middlesbrough; Director North Eastern Railway Co.; Free Trader and a writer on industrial and trade topics. "At the Works," a book by his wife, Lady Bell, who is a well-known novelist and playwright, aroused much interest in 1907.

BELLOC, Hilaire, M.P., King's Land, Shipley, Horsham, and Reform Club, a. 38; has been called one of the "three cleverest young men in London"—the others being Max Beerbohm and G. K. Chesterton. His writings include studies in French revolutionary history and satirical novels, nonsense rhymes and travel books; his latest, "The Eye-witness" (1908), an original attempt to re-create the world's greatest historic scenes. He is a Catholic and an anti-Socialist.

BENCKENDORFF, Count de, Chesham House, Chesham Place, S.W., a. 59; Russian Ambassador to Great Britain since 1903.

BENNETT, James Gordon, 28, West 21st St., New York, a. 67; owns the "New York Herald"; commissioned Sir H. M. Stanley to make his first trip into the heart of Africa, in the laconic message, "Find Livingstone"; is the donor of the Automobile Cup bearing his name; resides chiefly in Paris.

BENSON, A. C., The Old Lodge, Magdalene College, Cambridge, and Hinton Hall, Haddenham, Ely, a. 46; son (and biographer) of the late Archbishop. A master at Eton 19 years; now a prolific man of letters. Has written monographs on Walter Pater, Rossetti, FitzGerald, and Tennyson; poems, essays, and a series of books of an introspective philosophic character, the latest being "At Large" (1908); edited, with Viscount Esher, "Queen Victoria's Letters."

BENSON, E. F., 102, Oakley Street, Chelsea, a. 41; son of the late Archbishop. "Dodo" made him famous in 1893; it has been followed by a long series of novels showing steady advance in range and power; the latest are "Sheaves" and "The Climber."

BENSON, F. R., actor-manager and pageant master; his famous répertoire company has carried Shakespeare into every part of England, and given a start to many succesful players; director of the annual Shakespeare festival at Stratford-on-Avon; was three-mile champion at Oxford.

BENT, Sir Thomas, Melbourne; Premier of Victoria, returned to power for the second time, 1908.

BERESFORD, Lord Charles, a. 62, commanding the Channel Fleet; the second son of the 4th Marquis of Waterford, was selected while still only a naval lieutenant to accompany the King on his trip to India; commanded the Condor at the bombardment of Alexandria, where his gallantry brought him a signalled "Well done, Condor!" and mention in despatches; served on Lord Wolseley's staff in the Nile Expedition of 1884, commanded the Safia, relieved Sir Charles Wilson, saved desert column, received the thanks of Parliament; became a Lord Commissioner of the Admiralty in 1886; resigned '88 on question of strength of fleet; has three medals for life-saving, and has been in and out of Parliament between his appointments at sea; his relations with his colleagues in the Channel Fleet gave rise to a furious newspaper controversy in 1908.

BERNHARDT, Sarah, 56, Boulevard Pereire, Paris, a. 63; queen of the French stage for a generation; born in Paris, widow of M. Jacques Damala; dabbles in sculpture, painting, and literature, and is devoted to most forms of athletic exercises possible to her sex; published her "Memoirs" in 1907.

BERTIE, Sir Francis, a. 64; English ambassador to France, in which he succeeded an ancestor in the days of Elizabeth. For 39 years he was at the Foreign Office; was at the Berlin Congress with Lord Salisbury, and afterwards became assistant under-secretary. From the Foreign Office he went to Rome, and thence to Paris (1905).

BERTILLON, Alphonse, Prefecture of Police, Paris, a. 55; inventor of the anthropometric method of criminal detection now being adopted throughout the world.

BIRMINGHAM, Bishop of, Dr. C. Gore, Bishop's Croft, Birmingham, a. 55; raised to Episcopate, 1902, as Bishop of Worcester; first Bishop of Birmingham, 1905; a leader of the High Church social reformers, and an active worker against sweating in every form; he edited "Lux Mundi"; was one of the bishops who pleaded for European intervention in Macedonia; supported the Licensing Bill, and has worked for an honourable compromise in the Education dispute. His latest book, "The New Theology and the Old Religion."

BIRRELL, Rt. Hon. A., M.P., K.C., 70, Elm Park Road, Chelsea, a. 59; Chancery barrister by profession, but man of letters by preference; a delightful essayist; a most polished and witty speaker. Was President of the Board of Education, and brought in the Bill of 1906; Irish Secretary, 1907, and successfully piloted the Irish University Bill, 1908; is President National Liberal Federation.

BLAIR, Robert, London County Council Education Department, Victoria Embankment, W.C., a. 49; Education Officer of the London County Council since 1904.

BLATCHFORD, Robert, "Clarion" office, Worship Street, E.C., a. 57; founder and editor of the "Clarion," the first successful Socialist paper in England; his book, "Merrie England," a sketch of society as it is and might be, has had an amazing sale, and has lately been re-issued; started a vigorous attack on Christianity in 1904, and in 1908 came into collision with his fellow Socialists through his insistence on the necessity of defence against Germany.

BLUNT, Wilfrid Scawen, Crabbet Park, Sussex, a. 68; is married to a granddaughter of Lord Byron, and is himself a poet of distinction; has at Crabbet the most famous stud of Arab horses in the world; stood for Parliament once as a Tory Home Ruler; played a conspicuous part in the Egyptian National Movement, and spent £4,000 to save the life of Arabi Pasha. Published a "Secret History of English Occupation of Egypt," 1907.

BLYTH, Lord, 33, Portland Pl., W., a. 67; enthusiastic agriculturist who is making interesting experiments with a view to

popularising and bettering the present system of allotment holding; leader in campaign against consumption.

BOND, Rt. Hon. Sir R., P.C., K.C.M.G., St. John's, a. 51; Premier of Newfoundland since 1900; was Speaker at 28; a staunch protagonist of Colonial claims on the fisheries question, and opponent of the Colonial Office regarding the modus vivendi; chief author of Hay-Bond treaty with United States.

BOOTH, Rt. Hon. Charles, D.Sc., F.R.S., 24, Great Cumberland Pl., W., a. 68; Liverpool merchant who has devoted half a lifetime and a fortune to collating statistics which are embodied in "Life and Labour of the People of London." Made Privy Councillor 1904. Purchased a duplicate of Holman Hunt's "Light of the Wolrd," sent it on exhibition round the world, and has since presented it to St. Paul's Cathedral. Member of Poor Law Commission.

BOOTH, General William, 101, Queen Victoria Street, E.C., a. 80; a minister and evangelist, founder of the Salvation Army, which has assumed world-wide proportions; in its social phases the work has a national value; the refuges, labour homes, and land settlements have attracted the attention and gained the approval of the highest authorities on social problems. In 1904 an International S.A. Congress was held in London, during which the General was received by the King and Queen. In 1905 he received the freedom of his native Nottingham and of the City of London; and in 1907, when he started on another great tour, he received the D.C.L. degree at Oxford. During past few years has undertaken extensive preaching tours by motor-car; revisited South Africa, 1908.

BORDEN, R. L., K.C., Grand Pré, Nova Scotia, a. 54; leader of the Conservative party in the Canadian Dominion; defeated by Sir Wilfrid Laurier in the elections of 1908.

BOTHA, the Hon. Louis, P.C., Pretoria, a. 45; first Premier of the Transvaal, opposed President Krüger's war policy at the outset, and then proved one of our doughtiest adversaries; has since appealed to both the Boers and their fellow-subjects in England to "let the blood of the brave who found their graves in South Africa be the cement that will bind us together"; cultivates a taste for music and letters as well as land; married a descendant of Robert Emmet; was lavishly fêted during his visits to England, 1902 and 1907.

BOWLES, Thos. Gibson, 25, Lowndes Sq., S.W., and Wilburg, Salisbury, a. 65; has founded several papers, among them "Vanity Fair"; holds a master mariner's certificate; lost his seat at the 1906 election, but for many years was a brilliant parliamentarian and financial expert. His son is in the House.

BRADDON, M. E. (Mrs. J. Maxwell), Lichfield House, Richmond, a. 71; has written upwards of seventy novels of the sensational domestic order, and has never lost the popularity which "Lady Audley's Secret" brought her in 1862.

BRANGWYN, Frank, A.R.A., Temple Lodge, Queen Street, Hammersmith, W. Born in Bruges of British parents; a painter of originality and distinction, who has achieved a greater reputation in Europe than any contemporary English artist; examples of his work are to be found in nearly all the leading picture galleries of the world, and in the Ambulatory of the Royal Exchange.

BRASSEY, Lord, G.C.B., Normanhurst, Battle, Sussex, a. 73; an ex-Governor of Victoria, going and returning in his own yacht, the famous Sunbeam, which holds the record for number of miles covered; has been Civil Lord and Secretary of the Admiralty; is a recognised naval expert; founder of "Brassey's Naval Annual"; author of "Work and Wages," "Foreign Work and British Wages," "British Seamen," "The British Navy." Favours railway nationalisation. Has served on many Royal Commissions. Ex-President London Chamber of Commerce; President Associated Chambers of Commerce, United Kingdom; Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports.

BRAYTON, Lily (Mrs. Oscar Asche), 22, Elm Tree Road, N.W.; actress; toured with F. R. Benson; a charming exponent of several of Shakespeare's heroines; her Rosalind in "As You Like It," and her part in "Attila" at His Majesty's, 1907, were much praised; Iseult in "Tristan and Iseult"; and the Queen in "The Virgin Goddess," Adelphi, 1906; played Katusha in "Resurrection" at His Majesty's.

BRENNAN, Louis, C.B., Woodlands, Gillingham, Chatham, a. 57; inventor of the celebrated torpedo for which the British Government gave £110,000; and of a gyroscope railway which, it is claimed, will have important bearings where quick and cheap transit is essential, as in Colonial development, and also in land operations of a military character. The Indian Government gave him £6,000 to experiment, and the War Office has placed a fully equipped factory at his disposal.

BRIDGE, Sir Frederick, The Cloisters, Westminster Abbey, a. 64; organist at the Abbey since 1875; is a composer; holds the Professorship of Music in London University; is conductor of the Royal Choral Society; directed the music of the Coronation service.

BRISTOL, Bishop of (Rev. Dr. G. F. Browne), The Palace, Bristol, a. 75; a Churchman of liberal views, and an educationist; an authority on early Church History; is President of the Alpine Club.

BROOK, Rev. David, M.A., D.C.L. (Oxon), Duke St., Southport, a. 54; President of the National Free Church Council, and ex-President United Methodist Free Churches; a leader in the Methodist Union movement which was consummated in 1907; is minister of Duke Street, U.M. Church, Southport.

BROOKE, Rev. Stopford A., LL.D., 1, Manchester Square, W., a. 76; Chaplain in Ordinary to Queen Victoria, and minister at a West End church before he seceded from the Church of England; a poet and brilliant literary critic. His Primer of English Literature is a classic among textbooks; his studies of Shakespeare, Tennyson, and Browning, volumes of sermons, and Life of F. W. Robertson have had countless readers in England and America; published, 1908, "A Study of Four Poets." Club: Athenæum.

BROWNLOW, Sir Chas., H., Field-Marshal, G.C.B., Warfield Hall, Bracknell, Bucks, a. 77; began as a cadet in India sixty years ago, and served in the Mutiny and many other campaigns in Asia; promoted F.M. in 1908.

BRUNNER, Sir John, Bart., M.P. (L.), 9, Ennismore Gdns., S.W., a. 66; founder, with Dr. Ludwig Mond, F.R.S., of alkali works at Northwich, the largest in the world; his father was a Swiss, who became a schoolmaster in England; has built several town halls and free libraries. Privy Councillor, 1906.

BRYAN, W. J., Lincoln, Nebraska, U.S.A., a. 48; was first elected to Congress at 30 years of age, and has thrice run for the Presidency as Democratic candidate; formerly champion of the free-silver doctrine; leading planks in present platform: tariff reform, anti-imperialism, opposition to trusts, and strong labour policy; after a world-tour in 1905-6 was accorded a great reception in U.S.; edits the "Commoner," a political weekly; greatest living stump-orator; defeated by Mr. Taft in the 1908 presidential election.

BRYCE, Rt. Hon. James, Washington, D.C., British Ambassador to Washington, a. 70; late Chief Secretary for Ireland. Was for nearly quarter of a century Professor of Civil Law at Oxford; has sat in two Liberal Cabinets; best known, however, by writings, of which his "American Commonwealth" and "Holy Roman Empire" are classics.

BUCHANAN, Rt. Hon. T. R., 12, South St., W., a. 62; formerly Financial Secretary to the War Office, now Under-Secretary for India.

BUCKLE, George Earle, 64, Warwick Sq., a. 54; editor of the "Times" since 1884; after a brilliant career at Oxford, joined the editorial staff as a man of 26, and less than four years later, upon the death of Thomas Chenery, was made editor.

BUCKNILL, Hon. Sir Thos. T., Hylands House, Epsom, a. 63; Judge of the King's Bench; appointed after 30 years' steady progress at the Bar.

BÜLOW, Prince von, Berlin, 77, Wilhelmstrasse, a. 59; became, in 1900, German Imperial Chancellor in succession to Prince Hohenlohe; fought in the Franco-Prussian War, entered Diplomatic Service, was Ambassador at Rome. Was made a Prince, and inherited £275,000 in 1905; tendered his resignation, which was not accepted, after the publication in the "Daily Telegraph" (Oct. 1908) of the interview with the Kaiser revealing secrets of European diplomacy during the Boer War.

BURDETT-COUTTS, Wm. Ashmead Bartlett, M.P., 1, Stratton St., W., a. 57; is the son of an American, and by royal licence adopted his present name. He married the late Baroness Burdett-Coutts in 1881, and administered her benefactions; his condemnation of the Army hospitals in S. Africa led to a large scheme of reform of the Army Medical Service.

BURNAND, Sir Francis Cowley, a. 71; associated with "Punch" 44 years; editor 25½ years; retired from editorship 1906. Practised at the Bar, relinquished law for light literature; has written over a hundred and twenty successful plays, including burlesques and musical comedies. Granted a Civil List pension of £200 (1907).

BURNHAM, Lord, Hall Barn, Bucks, a. 75; principal proprietor "Daily Telegraph"; son of the late Mr. J. M. Levy, J.P., one of the founders of the cheap Press; was apprenticed in his father's printing-office after leaving London University College; took prominent part in repeal of the paper duties; in organising fund for relief of Lancashire Cotton Famine; in sending Sir H. M. Stanley, Sir H. Johnston, and late Geo. Smith exploring.

BURNS, John, M.P., P.C., 37, Lavender Gardens, Battersea, S.W., a. 50; was a working engineer; he came to the front during the Trafalgar [illegible] and the great dock strike; member [illegible] ttersea since 1892; a man of [illegible] nal attainments and a powerful speaker; is a lifelong abstainer. Appointed President Local Government Board, 1905; the first working man to hold Cabinet rank in England. His vigorous administration of the L.G.B. has led to exposures of grave abuses in Poor Law Administration; now principally occupied with Old Age Pensions, Unemployment, Housing Bill and Pure Food.

BURT, Thos., M.P. (Lab.), Reform Club, S.W., [illegible] for 35 years member for Morpeth; at 10 years of age began work in a coal-mine, and is described officially to-day as a coal-miner; teetotalism and trade unionism made him a speaker, and at 28 he became Secretary of the Northumberland Miners' Association; he is a leader of the old school, and a convinced trade unionist. A Privy Councillor; held office in Liberal Ministry, 1892-95.

BUTCHER, S. H., M.P., 6, Tavistock Sq., W.C., a. 58; an eminent Greek scholar and educationist; for more than 20 years Professor of Greek at Edinburgh; represents Cambridge University on the Conservative side, and has a growing reputation in the House.

BUTLER, Lt.-Gen. Sir Wm. Francis, Bansha Castle, Tipperary, a. 70; a soldier and writer, with a fine record; held the South African command, 1898-9, and then resigned because the War Office made his position impossible; retired from Army, November, 1905, after 47 years' service. His impressions of South Africa given in "From Naboth's Vineyard." His wife is the famous p[illegible]r of "The Roll Call," &c.

BUTT, Mme. Clara, famous contralto, Compton Lodge, South Hampstead, a. 36. A celebrated German critic said "hers is the voice of a century." While still a student she made a début at the Albert Hall, which was the talk of London. A few days later she appeared as Orphée at the Lyceum, and created another sensation, the performance being repeated by command of the King (then Prince of Wales). Married, in 1900, to Mr. Kennerley Rumford.

BUXTON, Sydney Charles, M.P. (L.), 7, Grosvenor Crescent, S.W., a. 55; Postmaster-General since 1905; established the penny post to America, 1908, and the Canadian

Magazine post, 1907; Under-Sec. for Colonies in last Liberal Government. His "Politician's Handbook" is in constant request; writes books on finance and on fishing.

CADBURY, George, Manor House, Northfield, J.P. for Worcestershire, a. 69; Chairman of Cadbury Bros., Ltd., and of the "Daily News." Founder of Bournville Model Village and Estate, value £250,000, which he has handed over to trustees, so that the whole income shall in perpetuity be devoted to improving housing in any part of England.

CADOGAN, Earl, K.G., Chelsea House, Cadogan Pl., S.W., and Culford Hall, Bury St. Edmunds, a. 68; has held various offices in Conservative Governments, among them that of Lord-Lt. of Ireland from 1895 to 1902; owns property in Chelsea.

CAINE, T. H. Hall, Greeba Castle, Isle of Man, a. 55; was educated as an architect, but took to journalism, and was leader-writer in Liverpool before writing his first novel; of his best-known works, seven have been dramatised, and all have had large sales. Elected to House of Keys, 1901, and takes active interest in government of Isle of Man, where he is on the Commission of Peace. His autobiography, "My Story" (1908), revived the controversy as to the life and death of D. G. Rossetti.

CALVE, Mme. Emma, Château Cabrières, Cevennes, France, a. 42; unites a magnificent voice to brilliant dramatic gifts and a captivating personality; a Provençal by birth; spends much of her time at her beautiful château in Cevennes; revisited America in 1908.

CAMBON, M. Paul, G.C.V.O., Albert Gate House, S.W., a. 66; Ambassador of the French Republic. Received the hon. Oxford degree of D.C.L., in 1904, Edinburgh, in 1905, Cambridge, in 1906, when he was introduced as "particularly deserving of honour as having been one of the authors of the French Treaty with Great Britain."

CAMPBELL, Rev. R. J., Hill Lodge, Enfield, a. 41; succeeded, in 1903, to the pastorate of the City Temple, London, upon the death of Dr. Parker, after a brilliantly successful ministry at Brighton; is one of the great forces in the public life of London. Two books on the New Theology, published in 1907, aroused a controversy which still continues; is an enthusiastic Socialist, and speaker on Labour platforms.

CANTERBURY, Archbishop of (Dr. Randall Thomas Davidson), Lambeth Palace, a. 60; as a curate was one of Dr. Vaughan's "lambs." Three years after having been ordained, became, in 1877, chaplain and secretary to Archbishop Tait, whose daughter Edith he married. He became Chaplain to Queen Victoria, beside whose death-bed he was eventually to stand. Next followed the Deanery of Windsor, succeeded by the See of Rochester, whence he was translated to Winchester. His appointment as Archbishop, upon the death of Dr. Temple, met with the approval of all parties in the Church. Paid a visit to the United States, 1904; presided over the Lambeth Conference, 1908.

CARLILE Rev. Prebendary W., 55, Bryanston St., W., a. 63; founder and hon. sec. of the Church Army for evangelistic and social service among the masses; rector of St. Mary-at-Hill, Monument.

CARNEGIE, Andrew, Skibo Castle, Sutherland, a. 71; the wealthiest man in the British Empire; born in Scotland, worked as a stoker at the age of 13; went to America, where he made a fortune in the Pittsburg iron trade; returned to his native land with a fortune of £40,000,000 and an income of £2,000,000; hopes to distribute his wealth during his lifetime; has only an adopted daughter to provide for; is endowing educational establishments, founding libraries, equipping hospitals; has given £2,000,000 to the Scottish Universities to pay the fees of deserving poor students; has lately extended to the British Isles his Hero Fund, for the benefit of those dependent on persons losing their lives in saving life, or for the heroes themselves if they are only injured; he has also provided a permanent building at The Hague for the Court of Arbitration, and in Washington for Central American Republics.

CARRINGTON, Earl, 53, Prince's Gate, S.W., a. 65; an ardent Liberal; President Board of Agriculture, 1905; is Joint Hereditary Lord Great Chamberlain. The leader of the Small Holdings movement; K.G. 1906.

CARSON, Rt. Hon. Sir E. H., M.P., K.C. (C), 3, Dr. Johnson's Buildings, Temple, a. 54; has had two legal careers. In Ireland rose from Counsel to the Attorney-General to position of K.C. and Solicitor-General there, crossed to England and became K.C. and Solicitor-General here; the record he thus holds is unique.

CARUSO, Signor, Villa alle Panche, Florence; generally acknowledged to be the finest tenor of the present day; began life as an engineer, with no thought of singing until a friend assured him that there was a fortune in his voice. So he studied for a while, and made a first appearance in opera, some few years ago, in his native city, Naples. His success was immediate, and he now sings at all the greatest opera houses in the world, commanding fees of hundreds of pounds per night. His greatest hobby is drawing, and he might have made a good deal of money as a caricaturist, judging by the remarkably clever pictures of himself and his friends which he is always executing.

CASSEL, Rt. Hon. Sir E., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., 48, Grosvenor Sq., W., a. 56; financier whose operations cover many fields, from Egypt to Central London Railway; gave £200,000 for the establishment by the King of sanatoria for consumptives.

CAWDOR, Earl, 7, Prince's Gardens, S.W., a. 62; between 1895 and 1905 he converted the Great Western Railway, of which he was Chairman, from a second-class concern into a flourishing company. It was this display of business capacity which led to his appointment, March, 1905, as First Lord of the Admiralty.

CECIL, Lord Hugh, 20, Arlington St., S.W., a. 39; the most brilliant of all the late Lord Salisbury's sons, an extremely clever debater, with a fine gift of eloquence. A Unionist Free Trader; is no longer in the House, where he had won a great reputation. Is a member of the Welsh Church Commission.

CECIL, Lord Robert, K.C., M.P., 25, Grove End Road, St. John's Wood, N.W., a. 44; third son of the late Lord Salisbury, in practice at the Bar; a clever and indefatigable parliamentarian; has studied the art of "innocent obstruction" to a nicety.

CECIL, Rev. Lord William, St. Audrey's, Hatfield, Herts, a. 45; rector of the church of the Cecils since 1888. Visited China in 1907, and wrote articles in the "Times" on missions in China.

CHAMBERLAIN, Arthur, Birmingham; younger brother of the ex-Colonial Secretary; head of Kynoch's, Ltd., and four other large trading concerns; is a keen temperance reformer and Free Trader; pays his workmen betw een 21 and 60 minimum wage of 22s., s the 48 hours' week in most departments.

CHAMBERLAIN, J. Austen, M.P. (U.), 9, Egerton Place, S.W., a. 45; son of the Rt. Hon. J. Chamberlain, M.P.; Postmaster-General, 1902–3; Chancellor of the Exchequer, 1903–5; formerly Financial Secretary to Treasury and a Civil Lord of the Admiralty. Married in 1906 Ivy Muriel, daughter of Colonel H. L. Dundas.

CHAMBERLAIN, Rt. Hon. J., M.P. (U.), Highbury, Birmingham, a. 72; Camberwell born; went early to Birmingham, where he was in business as a partner in the then firm of Nettlefold and Chamberlain; he retired from business before he was 40; thereupon threw himself into local politics as an advanced Radical; had a remarkable influence upon the civic life of Birmingham; after being three times mayor was returned to Parliament as a Liberal; four years later became President of the Board of Trade; quitted the Liberal party in 1886 over Home Rule, and became Secretary for the Colonies in 1895, and carried on the negotiations with the South African Republics before the Boer War; visited South Africa, 1902–3. In May, 1903, on his own responsibility, propounded a scheme of fiscal reform which has since been the overwhelming topic of politics. It sharply divided Unionist party, and led to half a dozen Cabinet resignations. He resigned office in Sept., 1903, to prosecute his campaign with independence. On his 70th birthday (1906) had a striking public reception, immediately after which the collapse of his health necessitated his retirement from public life. Has represented Birmingham in Parliament 31 years.

Mr. Chamberlain's secretary, writing to a correspondent on Sept. 23rd, 1903, said: "If you will look at any biography you will see that he passed the Bankruptcy Act and the Patents Act in the Administration of Mr. Gladstone. Later on he secured the acceptance of free education for the working classes and passed the Bill for assisting working people to purchase their own houses. He promoted the Local Government Bill for the counties, the Allotments and Small Holdings Bill for the agricultural labourers, and, finally, took a leading part in giving compensation to workpeople for accidents suffered in the course of their employment. Mr. Chamberlain has taken part in very many other measures of social reform, and his public part in regard to Imperial Union is well known."

CHAPLIN, Rt. Hon. Hy., M.P. (C.), Stafford House, St. James's, S.W., a. 67; convinced "opponent of the present system of free imports and restricted exports, miscalled Free Trade"; has been Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, President of the Board of Agriculture and also of the Local Government Board; lost his seat in 1906 after holding it since 1868; returned for Wimbledon 1907.

CHESTER, Bishop of (Dr. F. J. Jayne), The Palace, Chester, a. 63; a vigorous champion of temperance reform; advocates abolition of private monopoly in drink, and is interested in a company which controls model inns.

CHESTERTON, G. K., 48, Overstrand Mansions, S.W., a. 34; the most scintillating and epigrammatic of living journalists; poet, satirist, and controversialist; his books include a monograph on Browning and a striking study of Dickens; published three volumes in 1908—"The Man who was Thursday," "Orthodoxy," and "All Things Considered"; writes the "Notebook" in the "Illustrated London News"; is an anti-Puritan, and a valiant defender of the faith; lectures and debates everywhere.

CHINA, Dowager Empress of, Tze-Hsi. Her death took place in Nov., 1908. Adopted by a Chinese general who bought her, and by him passed on to the harem of the Emperor, whose paramount wife she eventually became. Upon the death of the Emperor Hsien-Feng, she became Regent, and administered the affairs of the Empire until the minority of the present Emperor, Kwang-Hsu, ended in 1889. Nine years later the Empress practically dethroned the Emperor because of his reforming tendencies, and rules in his name; in 1908 proclaimed a Constitution for China.

CHINA, Emperor of, Kwang-Hsu, a. 37; son of Prince Chun; his mother was a sister of the Empress-Dowager, a niece of whom he married in 1889. He speaks English fluently, and the westernising of his ideas made him amenable to many suggestions. Died Nov., 1908.

CHIROL, Valentine, Queen Anne's Mansions, S.W., a. 56; head of the foreign department of the "Times"; has travelled extensively, especially in the East, and is an authority on Asiatic questions.

CHURCHILL, Winston Spencer, P.C., M.P., 22, Carlton House Terrace, S.W., a. 34; a soldier at 19 he is to-day one of the most conspicuous figures in public life; saw the Spanish Campaign in Cuba, and served with the British force through Indian frontier wars; in the Soudan Campaign of 1898 rode in the 21st Lancers' charge. Won distinction in the Boer War, sent home some of the most effective letters received, was captured by the Boers, but made a dramatic escape. Since entering Parliament greatly improved as a debater, and reproduced that fearless independence of party which so distinguished his father, Lord Randolph Churchill, whose Life he has written. Lord Rosebery declares it to be one of the best in the language. Joined the Liberal party, and was appointed Under-Secretary for Colonies, 1905, and President of the Board of Trade, 1908; lost his seat in Manchester, and returned for Dundee, 1908. In 1907 was made a Privy Councillor; visited British East Africa. Married Miss Clementine Hozier in 1908.

CLARKE, Sir Edward, K.C., Thornecote, Staines, a. 67; son of a City of London jeweller; attended evening classes while working at the India Office; studied law, won Tancred scholarship; supported himself by journalism. His success at the Bar in the "Penge Mystery" made his reputation. Sat in Parliament many years, and was Solicitor-General, 1886-92. Resigned his seat, after some controversy, 1906. Published "Easy Shorthand," 1907; "Selected Speeches," 1908; P.C., 1908.

CLARKE, Sir G. S., G.C.M.G., Bombay, a. 60; was appointed Governor of Bombay in 1907, served with distinction in Egypt and the Soudan; Governor of Victoria, 1901-04; helped to reconstruct the War Office; was secretary to the Imperial Defence Committee, and has been entrusted with innumerable foreign missions. Is a son of the vicarage. In Bombay he has gained in an unusual degree the confidence of both British and Indians.

CLEMENCEAU, Georges, Paris, a. 67; Premier of France. Has been battling in French politics for 40 years, making and unmaking ministries, but has only lately had the opportunity of revealing his statesmanlike qualities. He was a defender of Dreyfus, and the Separation Bill was largely his work. A native of Brittany; a doctor by education; a politician by choice; a born orator, and a keen journalist; a swordsman, too. One of the most picturesque figures in modern politics. An opponent of Socialism, "a humanitarian Radical"; attended C.B.'s memorial service, and has twice met King Edward at Marienbad.

CLIFFORD, John, M.A., LL.B., B.Sc., D.D., 25, Sunderland Terrace, Westbourne Gardens, W., a. 72; is proud of the fact that he began life in a lace factory as a "jacker off." He is one of the leaders of Nonconformity and of the Passive Resistance movement. His jubilee as minister of Westbourne Park Baptist Chapel celebrated October, 1908.

COLLIER, Constance (Mrs. Julian L'Estrange), Sheffield Terrace, Campden Hill, N.W., a. 29; made her name first in musical comedy and burlesque, and later in serious drama; joined Mr. Tree's company, with whom her appearances as Portia, Viola, Nancy (in "Oliver Twist"), Poppœa (in "Nero"), Cleopatra, and Ethel (in "Colonel Newcome") were remarkably successful; has lately gained fresh laurels as a reciter on the variety stage.

COLLINGS, Rt. Hon. Jesse, Edgbaston, Birmingham, Constitutional Club, a. 78; self-made man, who has never lost sympathy with the rural poor, of which class he was born; became a prosperous Birmingham merchant, and the fidus Achates of Mr. Chamberlain; his Allotments Resolution caused the resignation of the Salisbury Government, 1886; has held minor Government offices. Published a valuable book on "Land Reform," 1906.

COLLINS, Arthur, Drury Lane Theatre, a. 48; succeeded the late Sir Augustus Harris, and rivals him in producing spectacular displays.

COLLINS, Rt. Hon. Lord, late Master of the Rolls, a. 67; took silk, 1883, became Judge, 1891, Lord Justice of Appeal, 1897. Presided over the Beck inquiry. With Justice Farwell interpreted Education Act as against the payment for religious instruction from public funds. Made Lord of Appeal, 1907.

COLQUHOUN, Archibald, 25, Bedford Gardens, W., a. 60; a great traveller and authority on all Far Eastern questions. His many books deal with the Pacific, China, Russia, South Africa, Greater America, Austria-Hungary. He has been a "Times" correspondent and an Administrator of Mashonaland, and now contributes to the "Morning Post" and leading reviews in Europe and America. His latest work "Dan to Beersheba: Work and Travel in Four Continents" was published in 1908. He writes on the Political Awakening of the East in this Year Book.

CONNAUGHT and STRATHEARN, H.R.H. the Duke of, Clarence House, St. James's, S.W., late Inspector-General of the Forces and President of the Selection Board. Appointed, 1907, F.-M. Commanding in Chief the Mediterranean Forces and High Commissioner in the Mediterranean—a new command, with headquarters at Malta. His eldest daughter, Princess Margaret, married, June, 1905, Prince Gustavus Adolphus, Crown Prince of Sweden. His son Prince Arthur, a. 24, has been called "the handyman of the Royal Family," and has been on many important missions; he conveyed the Garter to the Emperor of Japan.

CONRAD, Joseph, Pent Farm, Stanford, Hythe; a Pole who writes in English, and has won fame as one of the most original of the younger novelists, his pictures of the sea being unsurpassed. Of his dozen books, the latest are "The Mirror of the Sea," "The Secret Agent," and "A Set of Six."

COOK, E. T., 1, Gordon Place, W.C., a. 52; succeeded W. T. Stead as editor of the "Pall Mall Gazette"; resigned upon its change of proprietorship; was first editor of the "Westminster Gazette," and subsequently edited the "Daily News," 1896-1901; now leader-writer for the "Daily Chronicle"; editor of the authoritative edition of the Life, Letters, and Works of John Ruskin, in which he is associated with Mr. Alex. Wedderburn.

CORELLI, Marie, Stratford-on-Avon; the adopted child of the poet Charles Mackay; educated in a French convent, and studied for a musical career. At an early age betrayed literary gifts, and the success of "A Romance of Two Worlds" decided her course. Since then she has written a number of novels (the latest, "Holy Orders," published in 1908), which have had large circulations. Prevented the demolition of ancient buildings at Stratford-on-Avon connected historically with Shakespeare, and saved the chancel of the church where the poet lies buried from being invaded by modern memorials. Persuaded Mr. Edward Morris, of Chicago, to purchase Harvard House, and to present it to Harvard University, to which it now belongs.

COURTNEY, W. L., 53, Gordon Sq., W.C., a. 59; editor "Fortnightly Review" since 1894; principal literary critic of the "Daily Telegraph"; his books, mainly philosophy and criticism, number about a dozen.

COURTNEY OF PENWITH, Lord, 15, Cheyne Walk, Chelsea, a. 76; a mathematician, a barrister, an economist, and formerly leader-writer on the "Times." Sat in Parliament for 24 years; retired on account of Boer War; was Chairman of Committee and Deputy Speaker. Occupies a unique position in public esteem. The apostle of proportional representation. Was raised to the Peerage 1906.

COX, Harold, 6, Raymond Buildings, Gray's Inn, W.C., and Leigh, Tonbridge, a. 49; M.P. (L.) for Preston since 1906; Secretary Cobden Club, 1899-1904; worked as agricultural labourer in Kent and Surrey for nearly a year to study the conditions of such a life; taught mathematics in the Mohammedan College, Aligarh, for two years; studied for the Bar in 1887, but adopted journalism; a voluminous and forcible writer on economics and Free Trade; clever debater and untiring opponent of Socialism; the most uncompromising Individualist in the Commons.

COZENS-HARDY, Rt. Hon. Sir H. H. (Master of the Rolls), 50, Ladbroke Grove, W., a. 70; a sound lawyer and an excellent Judge; Court of Appeal, 1901; a Liberal and Nonconformist; father-in-law of Rev. C. Silvester Horne.

CRANE, Walter, R.W.S., Holland St., Kensington, a. 63; Commendatore of the Order of the Royal Crown of Italy; a decorative artist of varied attainments, whose influence is clearly traceable in many directions in the art of the day; poet, lecturer, man of letters; a Socialist. Declared by Jury at International Art Exhibition (Venice, 1905), to be, with Mr. J. W. Waterhouse, "of such fame as to be beyond prizes." Published his "Reminiscences" in 1907.

CRAWFORD, F. Marion, Villa Crawford, Sant' Agnello di Sorrento, Italy, a. 54; novelist and historian; born in Italy, married an American general's daughter; studied Oriental languages in India, where he edited a paper; his books, which now number about 50, are mainly concerned with Italian life and history; the latest are "The Prima-Donna" and "The Diva's Ruby."

CREWE, Earl of, Crewe House, Curzon Street, W., a. 50; a son of Lord Houghton married the younger daughter of Lord Rosebery, who is President of the Liberal Social Council; has been Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland; a Liberal, an art connoisseur, something of a poet, a bibliophile, a sportsman, and a man of wealth; now Colonial Secretary, Lord Privy Seal, and Leader of the Upper House.

CRICHTON-BROWNE, Sir James, Athenæum Club, and Crindau, Dumfries, N.B., a. 68; one of the most famous specialists on mental and nervous disorders and public health; has been Lord Chancellor's Visitor in Lunacy for 30 years; contributed important data to the Froude-Carlyle controversy in 1903. Is a legal authority on education. His report on over-pressure in schools led to abolition of "payment by results." Is President of the Sanitary Inspectors Association.

CROMER, Evelyn Baring, Earl of, 10, Wimpole St., W., a. 68; the maker of modern Egypt, skilled as a diplomatist and administrator; has been associated with Egyptian affairs for the last quarter of a century; was described by Lord Kitchener, after the conquest of the Soudan, as "the master of us all." Married, in 1901, Lady Katherine Thynne. Appointed a member of the Order of Merit, 1906; awarded a Parliamentary grant of £50,000 on his retirement in 1907, the vote passing the Lords unanimously and the Commons by 254 votes to 107. Presented with freedom of the City, October 28th, 1907; is a powerful supporter of the Unionist Free Trade group; his "Modern Egypt," published 1908, is the authoritative history of the British occupation and Lord Cromer's own apologia, especially with regard to the Gordon episode.

CROOKES, Sir William, D.Sc., F.R.S., 7, Kensington Park Gdns., W., a. 76; one of the most eminent analytical chemists and electricians of the age; discoverer of thallium, the radiometer, and radiant matter; a past President of the British Association, the Chemical Society, and the Institution of Electrical Engineers; is a leading member of the Psychical Research Society. Celebrated his golden wedding 1906.

CROOKS, Will, M.P., 81, Gough Street, Poplar; a. 56. Member for Woolwich, educated at George Green's School, Poplar, and was for a time in a poor law school; has been Mayor of Poplar, and is a member of the L.C.C. Is closely identified with all working-class matters.

CROSSLEY, Madame Ada (Mrs. F. Muecke), Durham House, Langford Place, London, N.W., a popular contralto, Australian by birth; has lately revisited her own country and received an enthusiastic reception.

CURZON OF KEDLESTON, Lord, Hackwood, Basingstoke, a. 50; Viceroy of India, 1898–1905. In 1905, difficulties over the new military scheme in India led to his resigning. He remained in India to receive the Prince and Princess of Wales. His viceroyalty was a period of strenuous activity and departmental reform; the administration was overhauled and speeded up; the problems of railways and the frontier, education and police reform, agriculture, irrigation and famine relief were attacked in turn; ancient buildings preserved and restored; an expedition to Lhassa undertaken in 1904. Lord Curzon's final administrative act, the Partition of Bengal (October, 1905), led to prolonged native agitation. Elected (1907) Chancellor of Oxford University; an Irish representative peer (1908); Lord Rector of Glasgow (October, 1908), beating Mr. Lloyd-George by 12 votes. Lady Curzon died in 1906.

DANE, Sir Louis W., a. 52; Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab (appointed 1908); an experienced member of the Indian Civil Service; negotiated the Dane Treaty with the Amir, 1905.

DARWIN, Francis, M.A., M.B., F.R.S., 13, Madingley Road, Cambridge, a. 60; President of the British Association at Dublin, 1908, his address on the inheritance of acquired characters being widely discussed; assistant to and biographer of his father, the author of "The Origin of Species."

DARWIN, Sir George H., K.C.B., Newnham Grange, Cambridge, a. 63; Charles Darwin's second son, descending from Wedgwood; is Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy. President of the British Association, 1905. Opened bridge over Victoria Falls, 1905.

DAVIDSON, Strachan, Balliol College, Oxford; succeeded Dr. Caird as Master of Balliol, 1907. "Mr. Davidson," said the "Saturday Review," "is historian rather than philosopher. As an historian his views are Whiggish. Is known to whole generations of Balliol men as the most popular and least conventional of dons."

DAVIES, Ben, 33, Compayne Gardens, N.W., a. 50; started life in trade, and later on joined the Carl Rosa Opera Company, eventually becoming their principal tenor. Leaving the stage, he has since taken a leading position on the concert platform.

DEAKIN, Hon. Alfred, Melbourne, a. 52; was trained for the Bar, and has been a prominent figure in Australian politics since his 23rd year; is famous as an orator, and has repeatedly refused titular distinction. When a journalist in Melbourne it was said that "even the 'Age' could not wither his infinite variety." Was one of the most prominent figures at the Colonial Conference, 1907, and is an enthusiastic believer in Colonial Preference; resigned Premiership of Commonwealth Nov., 1908, and was succeeded by Mr. Andrew Fisher.

DEANE, Hon. Sir Hy. Bargrave, K.C., 2, King's Bench Walk, Temple, E.C., a. 62; after a brilliant career at the Bar, appointed Second Judge of the Probate, Divorce, and Admiralty Division, which Court he led.

De GREY, Earl, Studley Royal, ..., a. 57; most famous game-shot in the world; an authority on music, and, with his wife, is a leading supporter of Italian opera in London; eldest son of Lord Ripon.

De MORGAN, William, The Vale, King's Road, Chelsea; a. 66; co-worker with William Morris in the early eighties; designed glass and tiles for the Morris workshops; took the literary world by storm in 1907 with "Joseph Vance" and "Alice-for-Short," repeating his success in "Somehow Good"; his latest novel is "Blind Jim."

DENMAN, Lord, 16, Carlton House Terrace, S.W., a. 34; served in the Boer War with Middlesex Yeomanry and was wounded; a Liberal peer, active for the Government in the Upper House; Captain of the Bodyguard; married to the daughter of Sir Weetman Pearson, a prominent young Liberal hostess.

DERNBURG, Herr, a. 43; German Colonial Minister; made a great reputation in the financial and industrial world before being chosen by the Kaiser as the main support of his empire-making policy; author of a great scheme for the development of German Africa.

DESBOROUGH, Lord, Taplow Court, Maidenhead, a. 53; as Mr. W. H. Grenfell had a wonderful athletic record—cricket, running, rowing, punting, climbing, swimming, tennis, swordsmanship. "The real Admirable Crichton of our time," says Mr. Stead. As President of the British Olympic Association was the presiding genius of the Olympic Games held in the great Stadium at Shepherd's Bush, 1908.

DESPARD, Mrs., 1, Robert St., Adelphi; Hon. Treas. Women's Freedom League; a leader in the Women Suffrage and Labour movements; her social work in South London has won the highest recognition, and her eloquence has made her known to audiences all over the country; is a sister of General French.

DEVONSHIRE, Duke of, Devonshire House, Piccadilly, a. 40; succeeded to the dukedom 1908; son-in-law of Lord Lansdowne; Treasurer of the Royal Household, 1900–3.

DEWAR, Prof. Sir James, Royal Institution, W., a. 66; chemist of world-wide reputation, and a leading authority on the constitution of the atmosphere; co-inventor of cordite; first to obtain liquid and solid hydrogen; possesses innumerable diplomas and degrees.

DICKSEE, Frank, R.A., Greville House, Greville Place, Maida Vale, a. 55; painter of some of the most popular pictures of the generation, among them "Harmony," "Romeo and Juliet," "The Passing of Arthur," "The Funeral of a Viking," and "The Two Crowns."

DILKE, Rt. Hon. Sir Charles W., M.P. (L.), 76, Sloane St., S.W., a. 66; won success early with his "Greater Britain"; led the left wing of the Liberal Party in Gladstone's second Administration; was Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs and President of the Local Government Board; has an encyclopædic knowledge of the Army and Navy and of foreign and Colonial affairs.

DILLON, John, M.P. (N.), 2, N. Gt. George St., Dublin, a. 57; is an M.R.C.S. (Ireland); has been imprisoned for his share in the "Plan of Campaign," and been noticeable for exciting scenes in the House; is an enthusiastic Home Ruler, and has championed its cause the world over.

DOBSON, Austin, LL.D., 75, Eaton Rise, Ealing, W., a. 69; many years in the Board of Trade, retiring in 1901; a dainty poet, and an authority on eighteenth century literature; author of several charming biographies and numerous essays on people and events of his special period; published "De Libris," 1908.

DODS, Rev. Marcus, D.D., 23, Great King Street, Edinburgh, a. 74; chosen unanimously by the General Assembly of the United Free Church in 1907 Principal of New College, Edinburgh; from 1889 to 1907 U.F.C. Professor of New Testament Theology; an eminent expositor and biblical critic.

DONALD, Robert, 16, Taviton St., W.C., a. 48; editor of the "Daily Chronicle," "Lloyd's News," and "The Municipal Journal." Has had an interesting journalistic career in provincial cities, America, Paris, and London. Specialises on municipal and social questions.

DOUGHERTY, Sir Jas. B., Dublin Castle, a. 64; succeeded Lord MacDonnell as Under-Secretary in Ireland, 1908; an experienced educational administrator.

DOWDEN, Edward, Highfield House, Rathgar, co. Dublin, a. 65; Professor of Literature, Trinity College, Dublin, since 1867; author of the standard Life of Shelley, and an exposition of Shakespeare which held the field for many years.

DOYLE, Sir A. Conan, Hindhead, Surrey, a. 49; was a practising surgeon until "Micah Clarke" (1898) brought him fame;

"Sherlock Holmes" vastly increased his popularity as a writer of romances and detective stories; wrote a popular History of the Boer War. Knighted 1902.

DUDLEY, Earl of, Government House, Sydney, a. 42; Governor-General of Australian Commonwealth; the most popular Lord-Lieutenant Ireland had for many years; married a Miss Gurney; owns great coal-fields. His arrival in Australia (1908) was made the occasion of great public rejoicing.

DUNRAVEN, Earl of, 10, Connaught Place, W., a. 68; war correspondent in Abyssinia and in the siege of Paris, and served in the Boer War. Tried twice to lift the America Cup. Won the Kaiser's Cup, 1907. In 1903–4 became prominent as an Irish reformer. Is chairman of the Irish Reform Association, which has for its main object the "devolution to Ireland of a larger measure of local government."

DUSE, Eleonora, a. 48; Italian actress, daughter of travelling players; after a varied and not too prosperous touring career, made her mark as a tragedienne when she was 24; famous all over Europe and America for her acting in classical parts and in d'Annunzio's dramas.

EAMES, Mme. Emma, 7, Place des Etats Unis, Paris, a. 41; opera singer; born at Shanghai, of American parentage; married to Mr. Julian Story, the well-known painter; retiring from the stage this year.

EDDY, Mrs. Mary Baker G., Brookline, Mass., a. 87; author of "Science and Health" and several other works; founder of Christian Science, a movement which, starting in 1886 in Massachusetts, has spread over the civilised world. In 1907 she was decorated by the French Government as an Officier d'Académie. In 1908, on her leaving Concord, after a residence of 19 years, the City Council passed a unanimous resolution recording "(1) its appreciation of her life in its midst; (2) its regrets over her departure; (3) its hope that though absent she will always cherish a loving regard for the city."

EDISON, T. A., West Orange, New Jersey, U.S.A., a. 62; eminent American electrician; began life as a newsboy; invented machines for quadruplex and sextuplex telegraphic transmission, the phonograph, incandescent lamp, kinetograph, aerophone, megaphone, and many other instruments now universally used; still engaged in solving the great problem of electric storage and the treatment of low-grade ore.

EDWARD THE SEVENTH, King of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India; born at Buckingham Palace, Nov. 9th, 1841; married (1863) the Princess Alexandra (born Dec. 1st, 1844), daughter of Christian IX., King of Denmark; succeeded Queen Victoria, Jan. 22nd, 1901. Since his accession his Majesty's constant efforts have been directed towards the establishment of permanent agreements with the Powers, in pursuance of which objects he has visited the European Courts in succession; met the Tsar at Reval, 1908.

ELGAR, Sir Edward, Plas Gwyn, Hereford, a. 51; eminent English composer. He is entirely a self-made man, and taught himself everything in the art of music. For more than 20 years he studied and composed without meeting with much recognition. "The Dream of Gerontius" (1900) made him famous; principal later works, "The Apostles," "The Kingdom," and Symphony.

ELGIN and KINCARDINE, Earl of, 18, Ennismore Gardens, S.W., a. 59; Colonial Secretary 1905–8; grandson of the earl who spent £70,000 collecting the famous Marbles; Viceroy of India, 1894–99. Presided over the War Commission and the Scottish Churches Commission.

ELIBANK, Master of (A. W. C. O. Murray, M.P.), the heir of the 10th Baron Elibank, Juniper Bank, Walkerburn, N.B., a. 38; is Scottish Whip and Comptroller of the Royal Household.

EMMOTT, Rt. Hon. Alfred, M.P., 30, Ennismore Gdns., S.W., a. 50; has achieved distinction as Chairman of Committee and Deputy-Speaker; P.C., 1908.

ESHER, Viscount, 2, Tilney St., Mayfair, a. 56; Deputy Governor and Constable, Windsor Castle; member of the Committee of Imperial Defence. Hon. Sec. to Committee for National Memorial to Queen Victoria. Was a member of the Royal Commission of Inquiry into the S. African War, which produced report on Army organisation. Chairman of the committee of three which reconstituted the War Office, and issued a remarkable minority report, etc. Edited, with Mr. A. C. Benson, Queen Victoria's Letters, now published at 6s. Chairman Territorial Forces for County of London. G.C.B., 1908.

EUGÉNIE, ex-Empress of the French, Farnborough Hill, Hants, a. 82; as Mlle. de Montijo married Napoleon III., who in 1870 lost his throne; since then has lived in retirement in England.

EVANS, Hon. Sir S., K.C., 12, King's Bench Walk, E.C., a. 49; a successful and eloquent Welsh member; Solicitor-General in the present Government; M.P. for Mid-Glamorgan.

EXETER, Bishop of (Dr. Archibald Robertson), The Palace, Exeter, a. 55; Principal of King's College, 1897–1903; Vice-Chancellor of University of London, 1902–03.

FAIRBAIRN, Dr. A. M., a. 70; first Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford, from its foundation in 1886 until his retirement in 1908; an eminent theologian, exercising a great influence beyond the frontiers of Nonconformity.

FALLIÈRES, Armand, Paris, a. 67; President of the French Republic since 1906. His grandfather was a blacksmith, his father a clerk of the peace. He became a village attorney, and in 1876 was elected Deputy; was under-secretary to Jules Ferry, and has been Minister of the Interior, of Education, and of Justice. Has been President of the Senate eight times. Is a farmer, and has a passion for his vines. Had a great reception in England, 1908.

FARRAR, Sir George H., Bedford Farm, Johannesburg, and Chicheley Hall, Newport Pagnell, Bucks, a. 49; D.S.O. for services in Boer War, 1900; leader of the Opposition in the Transvaal Legislative Council.

FARWELL, Rt. Hon. Sir Geo., 15, Southwell Gardens, S.W., a. 63; Judge of the High Court of Justice since 1899; Lord Justice since 1906; decided Taff Vale case, which was affirmed by House of Lords; with the Master of the Rolls decided that, under the Education Act, it was illegal for the cost of religious instruction to be paid out of the rates. Chairman of the Commission of Inquiry into the War Stores scandal.

FAWCETT, Mrs. Millicent Garrett, 2, Gower St., W.C., a. 61; hon. LL.D. St. Andrews; widow of Henry Fawcett, sister of Mrs. Garrett Anderson, M.D. (first woman mayor in England), mother of the Miss Fawcett who was above the Senior Wrangler; educationist, woman suffragist, President of the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies; formed one of the commission of ladies which examined the concentration camps in South Africa; author of "Political Economy for Beginners," Lives of Queen Victoria and Sir Wm. Molesworth, and "Five Famous French Women."

FIFE, the Duke of, 15, Portman Sq., W., a. 59; created Duke on his marriage with the Princess Royal, eldest daughter of the King; resigned Vice-Chairmanship of Chartered Company on account of the Jameson Raid. Has been Lord Lieutenant of the County of London since 1900, and member of the Council of the Duchy of Lancaster since 1882 (26 years); represented Elgin and Nairn in Parliament for six years.

FILDES, Sir Luke, R.A., 11, Melbury Road, Kensington, a. 65. Painted the popular picture now in the Tate Gallery, "The Doctor"; also State portraits of the King and Queen.

FINLAY, Sir Robert B., LL.D., K.C., 31, Phillimore Gardens, W., a. 66; Solicitor-General, 1895–1900; Attorney-General 1900–5; graduated in medicine before called to the Bar; was a conspicuous figure in the Whitaker Wright action in 1903.

FIRTH, Charles H., M.A., Oxford, a. 51; Regius Professor of Modern History, Oxford. His special period is the Commonwealth and the seventeenth century. He contributed largely to the "Dictionary of National Biography."

FISHER, Admiral Sir John, 16, Queen Anne's Gate, S.W., a. 68; C.-in-C. at Portsmouth, "the Kitchener of the Navy," says Lord Rosebery. Was in the Crimean War; has been Controller of the Navy and Lord of the Admiralty; became Senior Naval Lord of the Admiralty, October, 1904; distinguished naval administrator; closely identified with the cause of reform; possesses both theoretical and practical experience, while his administrative skill is unequalled; is a master of gunnery, and has, at one time or another, held almost every important position in the Navy afloat and ashore. Was one of the three who drew up the Army Reform Scheme; received the O.M., 1905.

FITCHETT, The Rev. W. H., Hawthorn, Melbourne; a Methodist minister, head of a great ladies' college; his "Fights for the Flag" and "Deeds That Won the Empire" had an enormous vogue. In 1905 he founded a new review, "Life," and in course of world-tour visited England. His latest novel (1908), is "A Pawn in the Game."

FITZMAURICE, Lord, Leigh House, Bradford-on-Avon, a. 62; Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster; Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs 1905–8; is brother of Lord Lansdowne.

FORBES-ROBERTSON, J., 22, Bedford Sq., W.C., a. 56; was trained as an artist, but went on the stage and studied under Phelps; is now manager as well as actor; married to Miss Gertrude Elliot; his Hamlet was among the finest presentations of the part; produced "The Passing of the Third-Floor Back," 1908.

FORESTIER-WALKER, Gen. Sir F. W. E., Gibraltar, a. 64; served through the Kaffir and Zulu Wars, and was Q.M.G. in Bechuanaland; after commanding the troops in Egypt (1890–95), took over W. District, from which he went to S. Africa as Lieut.-General Commanding Forces. Now Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Gibraltar.

FORREST, Rt. Hon. Sir John, P.C., G.C.M.G., LL.D., F.L.S., F.R.G.S., F.G.S., the Bungalow, Perth, Australia, a. 61; leader of numerous exploring expeditions in Australia between 1869 and 1886; first Premier and Treasurer of Western Australia under responsible government 1890–1901; Minister of Defence Commonwealth of Australia 1901–3; Home Affairs 1903–4; Postmaster-General 1904–7, when he resigned.

FORSYTH, Dr. P. T., M.A., D.D., a. 60; was Chairman in 1905 of the Congregational Union, of whose principles he is an able exponent. Is an Aberdonian, and now principal of Hackney Theological College, Hampstead.

FRAMPTON, Sir G. J., 32, Queen's Road, St. John's Wood, N.W. A cunning workman in many arts—especially sculpture. In London his work may be seen on Lloyd's Register and Electra House; it is seen at Oxford (St. Mary's) and Winchester Cathedral. His statue of Queen Victoria stands in Calcutta. Knighted 1908.

FREMANTLE, Admiral Hon. Sir E. R., 44, Lower Sloane St., S.W., a. 72; served in Burmese, New Zealand, and Ashanti Wars; severely wounded in last; thanked by Parliament for meritorious services; has held many commands and won numerous distinctions; naval writer and keen sportsman.

FRENCH, Lt.-Gen. Sir J. D. P., Aldershot, a. 56; passed from Navy into Army, and made name as cavalry officer in 1884–5 Egyptian Campaign; vacated control of Cavalry Brigade at Aldershot to command Cavalry under Buller in South Africa; had unbroken series of successes throughout trying operations; returned to take command at Aldershot; succeeded Duke of Connaught as Inspector-General 1907; visited Russia 1907.

FRY, C. B., West End, Southampton, a. 36; finest all-round athlete of modern times; at Oxford senior scholar of Wadham, 1st class in Honour Schools; triple Blue—cricket, football, athletics (held world's record long jump some years). Captain, Sussex C.C.C. Founder and

editor of "Fry's Magazine," collaborated in 1907 with Mrs. Fry in a novel, "A Mother's Son"; recreations: hunting, fishing, shooting.

FRY, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward, G.C.B., Falland, Bristol, a. 81; a retired Lord Justice of Appeal, who is constantly in request as arbitrator. Is a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration, and was British Ambassador Extraordinary at the second Hague Conference.

GALTON, Francis, 42, Rutland Gate, S.W., a. 87; in youth an African travell famous cousin of Charles Darwin; to him chiefly owe our knowledge of hereditary genius, the markings of finger-tips, and the principle known to scientists as "Galton's Law"—that a man inherits one-fourth of his character from each parent, one-eighth from each grandparent. Founded at University College the new study of racial improvement, called Eugenics. Published "Memories of my Life" (Methuen), 1908.

GARVIN, J. L., Savile Club, W., a. 40; formerly editor of the "Outlook," now editor of the "Observer"; is "Calchas" of the "Fortnightly Review." One of the ablest publicists of the day and an authority on Tariff Reform.

GASQUET, Right Rev. F. A., 16, Harpur St., W.C., a. 63; an eminent Catholic scholar and historian; Abbot-President of the English Benedictines; superintending the revision of the Vulgate.

GEIKIE, Sir A., K.C.B., Shepherd's Down, Haslemere, Surrey, and Athenæum Club, a. 73; geologist of great distinction; late Director-General of Geological Survey of the U.K.; Secretary to Royal Society 1903–1908, and President 1908. Author of many scientific works and a volume of delightful reminiscences. Presi ed over Geological Society at its centenary, 19(

GERMAN CROWN PRINCE (William), a. 26; eldest son of the German Emperor; married, June, 1905, the Duchess Cecilie Augustine Maud, younger sister of the Grand Duke Frederick Francis IV. of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; an accomplished linguist, a lover of music, and is, by his father's wishes, studying local government.

GERMAN EMPEROR, William II., King of Prussia, 50; completed the twentieth year of his reign 1908. His first notable act was the virtual dismissal of Bismarck, an act which initiated that policy of absolute personal government towards which the Kaiser has steadily worked. He is a ruler of unquestionable ability, and the most striking figure among the world's kings. Spoke of the German nation (September, 1907) as "the block of granite upon which the Lord our God can build up and complete His work of civilising the world." Second visit to England, Nov., 1907. In October, 1908, the "Daily Telegraph" published the report of an interview in which the Emperor revealed a series of startling secrets in reference to European diplomacy during the Boer War; this led to an unexampled storm of criticism in Germany.

GIBB, Sir George, LL.B., By Cæsar's Camp, Wimbledon Common, a. 58; chairman and managing director of the Speyer amalgamation controlling the Metropolitan, District, and Underground Electric railways; helped in the re-organisation of the War Office after the Boer War, and sat on the Royal Commission on London Traffic.

GIBSON-CARMICHAEL, Sir Thos., Government House, Melbourne, a. 49; succeeded Gladstone as M.P. for Midlothian (1895–1900); has had a long connection with Scottish Liberalism; a trustee of the National Gallery, and (says Lord Rosebery) a consummate judge f all works of art; appointed Governor of Victoria, 1908. K.C.M.G., 1908.

GILBERT, Alfred, R.A., Warrington Crescent, Maida Vale, W., a. 54; generally regarded as the finest living English sculptor. He has, not without reason, been called a "modern Cellini." Like the Florentine master, he is not only a sculptor, but has achieved triumphs as a gold and silver smith. Principal works: Shaftesbury Memorial, Duke of Clarence Memorial at Windsor, Perseus arming Icarus, Queen Victoria Monument at Winchester, and many portrait busts.

GILBERT, Sir W. S., J.P., D.L., Grimsdyke, Harrow Weald, Middlesex, a. 72; author of many successful comedies and dramas, and of the famous "Bab Ballads"; creator, with late Sir Arthur Sullivan, of the unique series of Savoy comic operas; was first a barrister and clerk in the Privy Council Office.

GILBEY, Sir Walter, Elsenham Hall, Essex, a. 77; established the wine and spirit business which bears his name; a famous breeder of shire horses and hackneys, and an enthusiastic agriculturist. Also the author (amongst other works) of various books on horses of all kinds, and how to breed them, &c. Originated the Cart Horse Parade.

GILL, Charles F., K.C., 1, St. James's St., S.W., a. 57; formerly Counsel to the Treasury now one of the most familiar figures in notable cases in the Criminal Courts.

GIROUARD, Sir E. P. C., K.C.M.G., .. 42; High Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief of Northern Nigeria; one of the greatest living authorities on military railway administration; Director of Soudan Railways for six years; Railway Commissioner for the Transvaal after the Boer War.

GLADSTONE, Rt. Hon. Herbert, M.P., 9, Buckingham Gate, S.W., a. 55; son of William Ewart Gladstone; Home Secretary since 1905; married, in 1901, a daughter of Sir Richard Paget.

GLENESK, Lord (Sir Algernon Borthwick), 139, Piccadilly, a. 78; proprietor of the "Morning Post"; one of the founders of the Primrose League.

GOLDIE, The Rt. Hon. Sir Geo. Taubman, 11, Queen's Gate Gardens, S.W., a. 62; founder of Nigeria; added to the British Empire provinces five or six times the size of Great Britain; one of the Royal Commissioners who investigated (1902–3) the conduct of the Boer War and (1905–6) of the war stores scandal. President Royal Geographical Society, 1905–8.

GOOLD-ADAMS, Sir Hamilton J., K.C.M.G., C.B., Bloemfontein, a. 50; Governor of the Orange River Colony. For some time Resident Commissioner, Bechuanaland Protectorate.

GORKY, Maxim, a. 40; a Russian realistic novelist, imprisoned as a political offender in 1905. "In 1878 I was apprenticed to a shoemaker; 1879, I was apprenticed to a designer; 1880, scullion on board a packet boat; 1883, I worked for a baker; 1884, I became a porter; 1885, baker; 1886, chorister in a troupe of strolling opera players; 1887, I sold apples in the street; 1888, I attempted to commit suicide; 1890, copyist in a lawyer's office; 1891, I crossed Russia on foot; 1892, I was a labourer in the workshops of a railway. In the same year I published my first story."

GORST, Sir Eldon, K.C.B., Cairo, a. 47; son of Sir John, born in New Zealand; has had a distinguished career in Egypt since 1886, where he became financial adviser; and in April, 1907, succeeded Lord Cromer as British Agent and Consul-General.

GORST, The Rt. Hon. Sir John, Letchworth, a. 73; was Civil Commissioner in New Zealand; organised the then scattered Conservative Party, and paved the way for a great victory for Disraeli; has been Solicitor-General, Under-Secretary for India, Secretary of the Treasury, and Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education. Lately published "New Zealand Revisited."

GOSCHEN, Rt. Hon. Sir W. E., British Embassy, Berlin, a. 61; transferred to the Kaiser's Court from Vienna, 1908; has had forty years' experience in the diplomatic service.

GOSSE, Edmund, 17, Hanover Terrace, N.W., a. 59; Librarian to the House of Lords since 1904; translator to Board of Trade for nearly 30 years; poet, critic, biographer; published (1907) "Father and Son," a fascinating autobiography, and a monograph on Ibsen, and a volume of poems, "The Autumn Garden," in 1908.

GOULD, Sir F. C., 3, Endsleigh St., W.C., a. 64; our foremost living political caricaturist; produces a cartoon almost daily for the "Westminster Gazette," of which paper he is assistant-editor; has been described by Lord Rosebery as the Liberal Party's greatest asset. Even his pet subject, Mr. Chamberlain, admits his good nature. "I have never found anything to complain of in his cartoons," he says.

GRACE, Dr. W. G., 7, Lawrie Park Rd., Sydenham, a. 60; the greatest of a family of cricketers; played for Gloucestershire and in all representative matches for 30 years.

GRANTHAM, Sir Wm., Barcombe Place, Lewes, a. 73; Judge of the King's Bench Division. Was M.P. for East Surrey, 1874–85; and Croydon, 1885–6. Is greatly interested in his estate and the villagers, and has originated many local organisations to keep the labourer on the land.

GRAYSON, Victor, M.P., House of Commons, S.W., a. 26; described his return for the Colne Valley, July, 1907, as "a victory for revolutionary Socialism"; was born in Liverpool; ran away to sea when 14; for six years was an engineer's apprentice; studied at Liverpool and Manchester Universities, but gave up the idea of entering the Unitarian ministry because "it was useless to expect true religion in a social system such as the present," and combined journalism with lecturing; created two remarkable scenes in the House of Commons, which resulted in his suspension, October, 1908.

GREENWOOD, F., 6, Border Cres., Sydenham; was the originator and first editor of the "Pall Mall Gazette," and also of the "St. James's Gazette." A great journalist, whose making of the leading article as a vehicle for political knowledge and argument is unexcelled. His action led to the purchase of the Suez Canal shares. Was paid a remarkable tribute on April 8th, 1905, at a complimentary banquet.

GREGORY, Robert, D.D., Deanery, St. Paul's, E.C., a. 90; succeeded Dr. Church as Dean after being 23 years a canon of St. Paul's.

GREVILLE, Hon. Sidney Robert, C.V.O., C.B., Ambassadors' Court, St. James's Palace, S.W., a. 42; was private secretary to the late Lord Salisbury and Equerry to Prince of Wales, and private secretary to the Queen. Groom-in-waiting to the King.

GREY, Earl, Ottawa, Canada, a. 57, succeeded his brother-in-law, Lord Minto, as Governor-General of Canada; was, after the Raid, Administrator of Rhodesia, 1896–7; is head of the trust for placing public-houses under public control, and diverting their profits to public purposes.

GREY, Rt. Hon. Sir Edward, M.P., Fallodon, Northumberland, a. 45; Secretary for Foreign Affairs; was Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs in the Rosebery Administration; a man of brilliant talents, who has administered the Foreign Office since 1905 to the admiration of all parties. Loves angling (has written on "Fly Fishing") and tennis, of which he is a past-champion, better than politics. "I have never remembered so signal a capacity for Parliamentary life and so small a disposition to it," Gladstone said of him. Conferred in London with Russian Foreign Minister on Near Eastern crisis, October, 1908.

HAECKEL, Prof. Ernst., Jena, Germany, a. 77; a great scientist whose works on philosophy and religion (especially "The Riddle of the Universe") are widely read in England in 6d. editions. One of the earliest champions of Darwin in Germany. Is Professor of Zoology at Jena University. His belief is that "Our monistic God the all-embracing essence of the world is identical with the eternal all-inspiring energy, and is one in eternal and infinite substance with space-filling matter. . . . The will of God is at work in every falling drop of rain and every growing crystal, in the scent of the rose and the spirit of man."

HAGGARD, H. Rider, Ditchingham House, Norfolk, a. 52; spent his early life as a Government official in S. Africa, where he hoisted the British flag over the Transvaal in 1877; leapt into fame with "King Solomon's Mines" (1886), and since then has produced about 30 romantic novels; is an authority on

all rural problems, and has written a standard book upon agriculture in England. Visited America, 1905, as Commissioner of the British Government, and investigated the problems of Land Settlement and Labour Colonies. Compiled a blue-book, since re-published in popular form, under the title of "The Poor and the Land." Is member of the Royal Commission on Coast Erosion and afforestation and an active magistrate.

HAIG, Lt.-Col., A. B., C.M.G., C.V.O., 61, Onslow Gardens, S.W., a. 62; Principal Conservative Agent since 1905.

HALDANE, Rt. Hon. R. B., K.C., M.P., 28, Queen Anne's Gate, S.W., a. 52; Secretary for War. Has entirely reorganised Army, and has said that "not for any office in the State would he lay down the task he has in hand." Has a profound knowledge of constitutional law; one of the most scholarly men in the House; an untiring worker, copious speaker, and apostle of "clear thinking"; has translated Schopenhauer, and is learned in Hegel and other German philosophers; his latest book is "The Pathway to Reality."

HALIFAX, Viscount, 79, Eaton Sq., S.W., a. 68; President of the English Church Union and leader of the Catholic party in the Church of England; was received by the late Pope in 1895, in reference to proposals for the ultimate reconciliation of the Churches of England and Rome; received again in 1903. Believes that the breach between the English Church and the Holy See was a disaster.

HALL, Marie, who holds a unique position among lady violinists, is only 25 years of age. Her early childhood was one of great hardship, and she even played in the streets, accompanied by her father on the harp. Befriended by Sir Edward Elgar and other musicians, she was sent to study with Sevcik in Prague, and in 1903 made a most brilliant début in London.

HALSBURY, Earl of, 4, Ennismore Gdns. S.W., a. 83; Lord Chancellor from 1885 to 1905; famous at the Bar as Sir Hardinge Giffard from the Tichborne trial onwards; delivered judgment against the United Free Church, 1904. Is organising a complete statement of the whole law of England, in 20 volumes, with the co-operation of a body of lawyers.

HAMILTON, Rt. Hon. Lord Geo., M.P., 17, Montagu St., Portman Square, a. 63; late Secretary of State for India; was First Lord of the Admiralty in Lord Salisbury's two preceding Governments. Resigned 1903 as a Free Trader. Chairman of the Poor Law Commission.

HAMILTON, General Sir Ian, Tidworth House, Andover, a. 56; Afghan War, 1879–80; served with distinction in the Boer War, 1880–81; was in the Soudan, 1884–85; in the Burma Expedition and at the Relief of Chitral; Tirah Campaign, 1897–98; in the late Boer War did brilliant work as Chief of Staff to Natal Field Force, and Chief of Staff, South Africa; Quartermaster-General to the Forces; present at some of the fighting in the Japanese War, 1904; accompanied 1st Japanese Army during 1904–5, and has written a book on his experiences—"A Staff Officer's Scrap Book"; now Commander-in-Chief, Southern Command, Adjt.-General (2nd Military Member of Army Council) from 1st June, 1909.

HARCOURT, Lewis, M.P., 14, Berkeley Sq., W., a. 46; First Commissioner of Works, and has charge of the royal parks, palaces, and the Houses of Parliament; long acted as private secretary to his father, Sir William Harcourt; greatly enhanced his Parliamentary reputation by his conduct of and success with the Small Holdings Bill, 1907.

HARDIE, J. Keir, M.P., 14, Nevill's Court, Fetter Lane, E.C., a. 52; earned his bread in a coalpit at 8, and learned to write shorthand with a piece of stick on a tile smoked over his pit lamp; miner till 24; entered Parliament as M.P. for West Ham, now sits for Merthyr Tydvil; Chairman of the Labour Party in the House until his departure on a world-tour, 1907; accorded great welcome home early in 1908.

HARDINGE, Sir Charles, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., 32, Bryanston Square, a. 51; permanent head of Foreign Office; Ambassador at St. Petersburg, 1904–6; has been at Berlin, Washington, Sofia, Bucharest, Paris, Teheran; qualified in Turkish, Persian, and Russian. Conducted negotiations in the Dogger Bank incident. Accompanied King Edward on his visit to the Tsar at Reval, 1908.

HARDY, Thomas, Max Gate, Dorchester, a. 68; the novelist and poet of Wessex; began life as an architect: "Far from the Madding Crowd" (1874) made him immediately known, and later novels—notably "The Return of the Native" and "Tess of the D'Urbervilles"—have given him a unique place among English artists in fiction; began to publish verse in 1898, and in 1904 his elaborate drama of the Napoleonic wars—"The Dynasts"; completed 1908.

HARE, Sir John, 75, Upper Berkeley St., W., and The Grange, Overstrand, Norfolk; actor; commenced his career in London, Prince of Wales's Theatre, 1864; entered into management 1875; retired from management 1900; knighted 1908.

HARRIS, Dr. Rendel, Chetwynd House, Selly Oak, Birmingham, President of the Free Church Council, 1907–8. Has a European reputation in the field of textual criticism. Has travelled extensively in Armenia and in the East in quest of MSS. Was one of the editors of the palimpsest of the Syriac Gospels discovered in the Convent of Mount Sinai.

HARRISON, Frederic, Elm Hill, Hawkhurst, a. 77; as member of the Royal Commission on Trade Unions, 1867–69, had much to do with the legal establishment of trade unions; as publicist and man of letters occupies a foremost place; as the intellectual leader in England of the Positivists has laboured unceasingly to win converts to the doctrines of Auguste Comte; Alderman of London County Council, 1889–92. In "The Creed of a Layman" (1907) he declares: "I have at no time of my life lost faith in a supreme Providence, in an immortal soul, and in a spiritual life." His latest books are "National and Social Problems," "Realities and Ideals," and "My Alpine Jubilee."

HARRISON, Mrs. Mary St. Leger ("Lucas Malet"), 6, York House, Kensington, W.; novelist, daughter of Charles Kingsley; author of "The Wages of Sin," "The History of Sir Richard Calmady," "The Far Horizon," etc.

HART, Sir Robert, 38, Cadogan Place, S.W., a. 74; Inspector-General of Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs until 1908, when he retired after 55 years' unbroken service in China; declined post of Ambassador; was among the besieged in the Pekin Legations, 1900. Wears a V.C. won as subaltern in Afghan campaign; his ancestors have been ennobled by the Chinese.

HARVEY, John Martin, 30, Avenue Rd., N.W.; actor-manager, with a high reputation for romantic parts; his greatest success was as Sydney Carton, in "The Only Way"; produced "The Last Heir," 1908.

HAWKINS, Anthony Hope, 41, Bedford Sq., W.C., a. 46; novelist, barrister, playwright; has set two literary fashions: (1) by "The Prisoner of Zenda," (2) by the "Dolly Dialogues"; has published more than a dozen novels, the latest, "The Great Miss Driver."

HAWTREY, Charles, 5, Basil Mansions, Sloane St., S.W.; made an extraordinary success of the private secretary in Brandon Thomas's farce; since then has become the most accomplished artist in stage mendacity.

HEALY, Timothy M., M.P., K.C., Chapelizod, co. Dublin, a. 53; first elected in 1880; an Anti-Parnellite after the split of 1890, but in February, 1900, supported re-union under Mr. Redmond; expelled from the Party October, 1900, as opposed to the United Irish League; re-invited thereto January, 1908; in prison 4 months in 1883.

HEARST, W. R., 27, West 35th St., New York, a. 46; in 1906 a candidate for the Governorship of New York, with an eye on the Presidency, but was defeated. Owner of the "New York American" and many other papers, with a circulation of 2,000,000. Is a Californian, and very wealthy; a total abstainer and non-smoker; an enemy of trusts, an advocate of good wages and an eight hours' day; by publication of private correspondence between prominent politicians and the representatives of the Standard Oil Company created tremendous sensation during Presidential election, 1908.

HEDIN, Sven, Stockholm, a. 44; Swedish explorer who has made remarkable discoveries in Central Asia. The Swedish Riksdag voted £4,170 to defray the cost of the publication of the scientific results of his journey in Central Asia, 1899-1902. He is renowned for the accuracy, beauty, and general excellence of his cartographical records. In 1906 he spent 3½ months going from Teheran to Seistan; pursued his travels in Tibet in 1907, and returned to India, after traversing the great Trans-Himalayan range, in 1908.

HELY-HUTCHINSON, Hon. Sir Walter F., Government House, Cape Town, a. 58; Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Cape of Good Hope, since 1901; was Governor of Natal when it was invaded by the Boers.

HENDERSON, Arthur, M.P., Teesdale House, Atherfold Road, Stockwell, S.W., a. 46; Chairman of the Labour Party since 1907; served an apprenticeship as a moulder in Newcastle; Wesleyan; abstainer; ex-member of Newcastle Town Council and Darlington Borough Council, and Mayor (1903).

HENRY, Sir Edward Richard, 29, Campden House Court, W., a. 58; Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police since 1903; entered Indian C.S. 1873; Inspector-General of Police for Bengal from 1890-99; organised town police for the Transvaal, 1900-1.

HENSON, Rev. Canon Hensley, 17, Deans Yard, S.W., a. 45; Canon of Westminster, and Rector of St. Margaret's; an outstanding figure in the Established Church; a man of wide sympathies, and an apostle of Church Re-union; an outspoken thinker on matters theological; published "The National Church," 1908.

HEREFORD, Bishop of, The Palace, Hereford a. 75; Dr. Percival was one of the most famous headmasters; 16 years at Clifton College as its first headmaster; 8 years President of Trinity College, Oxford, and 8 years Headmaster of Rugby; a Liberal in religion and politics.

HERKOMER, Prof. Sir Hubert von, C.V.O., R.A., D.C.L., Lululaund, Bushey, Herts, a. 60; in 1904 retired from his famous art school at Bushey; one of the most versatile of living men, working with equal facility in oils, water-colours, and metals; famous for his portraits and subject pictures; has been Slade Professor of Fine Arts at Oxford and received innumerable distinctions; was desperately poor as a boy; a Bavarian by birth; knighted in 1907; published "My School and My Gospel," 1908.

HEWINS, Wm. A. S., 15, Chartfield Avenue, Putney Hill, S.W., a. 43; late Director of the London School of Economics and Political Science, which he resigned to become Secretary of Mr. Chamberlain's Tariff Commission.

HEWLETT, Maurice, 7, Northwick Terrace, N.W., a. 48; "The Forest Lovers" (1898) gave him a high place among the younger romance writers; keeper of the Land Revenue Records and Enrolments until 1900; after devoting ten years to the writing of delicate historical romances, turned to modern comedy in 1908 with "The Half-way House."

HICHENS, Robt. S., Bath Club, W., a. 44; began as musician and music critic; "The Green Carnation" (1894) and other satirical stories led the way to serious novel-writing; "The Garden of Allah" (1905) is his most successful book, "A Spirit in Prison" (1908) his latest.

HICKS, E. Seymour, The Old Forge, Merstham, a. 38; for several years principal comedian at Gaiety; author and part author of many successful plays and musical farces; married to Miss Ellaline Terriss; both achieved triumphs in "Quality Street," "Bluebell," "The Catch of the Season," "The Beauty of Bath," and "The Gay Gordons."

HILL, Miss Octavia, 190, Marylebone Rd., N.W., has worked for 45 years to better the conditions of the London poor, especially in regard to housing, which she took up in co-operation with Ruskin; was one of the first members of the Charity Organisation Society; is enthusiastic in securing open spaces in town and country for the public, and since 1867 has saved many such—notably Parliament Hill Fields. Is a member of the Poor Law Commission.

HILLIER, Sir Walter, Pekin, a. 60; appointed Foreign Adviser to the Chinese Government, 1908; long experience in the Far East as consul, Chinese Secretary, and adviser to the Chinese military authorities.

HOLLAND, Wilhelmina, Queen of; came of age 1898; married (1901) Prince Henry Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; is a niece of the Duchess of Albany.

HOLMAN HUNT, Wm., O.M., D.C.L., 18, Melbury Road, W., a. 82; one of the founders of the Pre-Raphaelite School; foremost English painter of religious subjects; his famous pictures "Light of the World" are in Keble College, Oxford, and St. Paul's Cathedral; other important pictures are in the Corporation Galleries at Manchester, Birmingham, and Liverpool. Received the Order of Merit, 1905, and published "Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood," a notable work, in which he tells of the difficulties besetting the path of the pioneers. His latest picture, "The Lady of Shalott," was exhibited 1905.

HOLROYD, Sir Charles, Sturdie House, Weybridge, a. 47; Director of the National Gallery; formerly Keeper of the Tate Gallery; an artist of distinguished ability, especially as an etcher; author of a standard book on Michael Angelo.

HOOD, Sir Alex. F. Acland-, Bart., P.C., M.P., St. Audries, Bridgwater, a. 55; Chief Conservative Whip; has been Vice-Chamberlain to his Majesty's Household, as he was to that of the late Queen; served with the Grenadiers in Egypt during the campaign of 1882.

HOOKER, Sir Joseph D., O.M., The Camp, near Sunningdale, a. 91; succeeded his father as Director of Kew Gardens, and carried on the work with great distinction for 20 years; a great traveller-botanist; appointed to the Order of Merit, 1907.

HORNE, Rev. C. Silvester, M.A., 20, Ampthill Sq., N.W., a. 43; one of the ablest of Congregational ministers; in charge of Whitefield's Central Mission, in Tottenham Court Road, which he has made a centre for spiritual and social work. The Master of the Rolls is his father-in-law. Has written a history of the Free Churches.

HORSLEY, Sir Victor, 25, Cavendish Square, W., a British pathologist of European reputation; an advocate of vivisection and of temperance.

HORTON, Rev. Robt. F., M.A., D.D., Cheslis, Christ Church Rd., Hampstead, a. 53; minister of Lyndhurst Road Congregational Church, Hampstead, since 1880; an Oxford man; one of the most scholarly men in his Church; President of the Free Church Council in 1905; Chairman of the Congregational Union in 1903. Visited Palestine 1906.

HOUSMAN, Laurence, a. 41; novelist, poet, artist, and playwright; puzzled the literary world with his anonymous "An Englishwoman's Love-letters" (1900); is art critic of the "Manchester Guardian."

HOWELLS, Wm. Dean, 48, West 59th St., New York, a. 72; novelist, poet, critic, dramatist, essayist, whose works are as well known in this country as in the United States, where he was born; his pictures of American social life are minutely accurate. Received Hon. D.C.L. of Oxford, 1904. Author of over 70 books; his latest novel is "Fennel and Rue."

HUDSON, Sir Robert, 42, Parliament St., S.W., a. 44; is chief agent to the Liberal Party by virtue of having been Secretary of the National Liberal Federation since 1893, and Hon. Secretary of the Liberal Central Association since 1895; knighted in 1906 for his services as director of the Liberal forces.

HUGGINS, Sir Wm., K.C.B., O.M., D.C.L., F.R.S., &c., 90, Upper Tulse Hill, S.W., Athenæum Club, S.W., a. 85; eminent astronomer who has his private observatory at Tulse Hill; has been assisted by his wife in valuable researches; President of Royal Society from 1900–1905.

HUGHES, Chas. E., Albany, U.S., a. 46; Governor of New York State; son of a Baptist minister; one of the strongest personal forces in American public life; has proved himself an uncompromising enemy of corrupt corporations, and is now grappling with the gambling evil in New York.

HUNTER, Sir Robert, J.P., Meadfields, Haslemere, a. 64; solicitor to the Post Office since 1882; Chairman of National Trust for Preserving Interesting and Beautiful Places; for a generation has been actively associated with the Commons Preservation Society, and had a commanding share in the great lawsuits and other proceedings for preserving Epping Forest and other public spaces to the nation.

HYDE, Dr. Douglas, Ratra, Frenchpark, Ireland; historian, poet, and folklorist; founder and President of the Gaelic League, which promotes the study of the Irish language, Irish literature, art, industry, and games. President of the Irish Texts Society.

ILBERT, Sir Courtenay, Speaker's Court, Palace of Westminster, a. 68; formerly Law member of Viceroy's Council, India, now Clerk of the House of Commons. K.C.B., 1908.

INGE, Rev. W. Ralph, M.A., D.D., Lady Margaret Professor of Divinity, Cambridge, a. 48; an authority on the mystics; formerly Vicar of All Saints, Ennismore Gardens.

INGRAM, Sir Wm. Jas., 65, Cromwell Road, S.W., a. 62; son of Herbert Ingram, founder of the "Illustrated London News"; chief proprietor of that and other journals.

IRVING, H. B., 1, Upper Woburn Place, W.C., a. 38; elder son of Sir Henry; an Oxford man who combines the profession of an actor with a literary interest in historic

crimes and criminals; returned to London in 1908 after a long provincial tour; playing with great success his father's parts in "The Lyons Mail"; married (1896) Dorothea Baird, the original Trilby.

ISAACS, Rufus, M.P., K.C., 32, Park Lane, W., and Foxhill, Earley, Berks, a. 48; son of a City merchant; was a stockbroker before being called to the Bar; took silk 1898, and has attained a great reputation; is retained in every commercial and company case of importance.

ISVOLSKY, Baron, a. 50; succeeded Lamsdorff as Russian Foreign Minister, 1906, after a career in the diplomatic service, and introduced modern methods into his department; negotiated the Anglo-Russian Convention, 1907; visited London and the Chancelleries of Europe in 1908 during the Near Eastern crisis.

ITALY, Victor Emmanuel III., King of, a. 39; succeeded to throne 1900, on assassination of his father, King Humbert; married, 1896, Princess Hélène of Montenegro.

ITO, Prince, Tokio, Japan, a. 71; four times Premier of Japan; mainly instrumental in effecting treaty between England and Japan, and renewing it in 1905; he contributed most to reorganise Japan on the basis of its present constitutional régime. Arranged Japanese overlordship of Korea.

IVEAGH, Viscount, 5, Grosvenor Place, S.W., a. 61; member of the Guinness family; made gifts of £250,000 to rebuild Dublin slums, and a similar sum to London; 1903 gave £50,000 to Irish hospitals to commemorate the visit of King and Queen to Ireland; heir, Hon. Rupert Guinness, M.P., famous oarsman.

JACOBS, W. W., The Outlook, Loughton, Essex, a 45; made a reputation with "Many Cargoes" and "The Skipper's Wooing," and has written many other stories with a rich humour and a nautical flavour; "Salthaven," his latest (1908); formerly in the Civil Service.

JAMES, Henry, Rye, Sussex, a. 65; the most distinguished of living American novelists; has published more than 30 novels and collections of shorter stories, besides essays and sketches of travel; now engaged on the final edition of his works.

JAMES OF HEREFORD, Lord, 41, Cadogan Square, S.W., a. 80; has been Sol.-Gen. and Att.-Gen. under Liberal Governments, but joined Unionist ranks; in last Salisbury administration was Chancellor of Duchy of Lancaster; a Free Trader and an experienced arbitrator.

JAMES, Rev. H. A., School House, Rugby, a. 64; Headmaster of Rossall, and Principal of Cheltenham College before appointment to Headmastership of Rugby, in 1895. Dean of St. Asaph, 1886–9.

JAMESON, Leander Starr (Dr.) C.B., a. 56; was an administrator of Rhodesia under British South Africa Co.; led the Raid on the Transvaal, Dec. 29th, 1895; routed at Krugersdorp, and forced to surrender; sentenced to 10 months' imprisonment in London, but released owing to ill-health. •Premier of Cape Colony, 1904–7.

JAPAN, Emperor of, a. 56; came to the throne in 1867 Has one son, Prince Yoshihito, the Crown Prince, and four daughters. During the Emperor's reign Japan has been transformed from a feudal state into a great modern Power. Received from King Edward the Order of the Garter.

JAURÈS, Jean, House of Deputies, Paris; French Socialist leader. "The John Burns of Paris, but with the literary polish of a Morley or a Balfour." Has been lecturer at the Sorbonne and Prof. of Philosophy. Zola was one of his friends and admirers, and was visited in London by him. His argumentative duel with Clemenceau (1906) on the principles of Socialism was one of the events of the present Ministry.

JEROME, J. K., Goulds Grove, Wallingford, a. 49; after varied career as clerk, schoolmaster, journalist, actor, made great hit with "Three Men in a Boat." Has written many successful plays and founded "The Idler" and "To-day." His morality play, "The Passing of the Third-Floor Back," was produced by Mr. Forbes-Robertson, 1908, with striking success.

JESSOPP, Rev. Canon Augustus, D.D., Scarning Rectory, Dereham, a. 81; Chaplain in Ordinary to the King; a lover of the country and of East Anglia in particular; an authority on the Middle Ages and the reign of Elizabeth; a delightful chronicler of life in Arcady.

JOHNSTON, Sir H. H., St. John's Priory, Poling, Arundel, a. 50; explored Portuguese W. Africa and Congo; led scientific expedition to Kilimanjaro; in 1889 led expedition to Lake Nyasa and Tanganyika, founding British Central African Protectorate; late Special Commissioner and Commander-in-Chief for the Uganda Protectorate and adjoining territories; author of many books, the latest being "George Grenfell and the Congo."

JONES, Sir Alfred L., Oaklands, Aigburth, Liverpool; 13, Stratton Street, Piccadilly, London, a. 63; founder of Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine; proprietor of Elder Dempster Line, and interested in the development of the Canaries, West Indies, and especially of West Africa. President of the British Cotton Growing Association, President Liverpool Chamber of Commerce, President Liverpool Steamship Owners Association, Chairman Bank of British West Africa, Ltd., Honorary Fellow Jesus College, Oxford.

JONES, Henry Arthur, 37, Hornton Street, Kensington, W., a. 57; began life in a City warehouse; achieved success with "The Silver King" and other melodramas; of his later plays, nearly 30 in number, "Mrs. Dane's Defence" and "The Liars" especially have had a great vogue. His latest, "Dolly Reforming Herself," produced November, 1908.

JORDAN, Sir John Newell, K.C.M.G., British Min. Plen. at Pekin, a. 56; went to China as student interpreter in 1876; became Chinese Secretary 1891; Minister at Korean Court, 1901–6.

JOWETT, Rev. J. H., Clydesdale, Oxford Road, Birmingham, a. 45; succeeded Dr. Dale in the pulpit of Carr's Lane Congregational.

Church, Birmingham; is one of the leading preachers of Nonconformity; Chairman of Congregational Union 1906.

KATSURA, Marquis, Tokio, a. 62; Prime Minister of Japan, 1901-6; studied Army matters in Germany; was Vice-Minister of War under Oyama. In Chino-Japanese War marched through Korea to Manchuria.

KELLY-KENNY, Gen. Sir T., G.C.B., G.C.V.O., 136, Ashley Gardens, a. ~~; succeeded General Buller in command of Aldershot Division 1899; December same year went to front as Commander Sixth Division; Adjutant-Gener l to the British Army 1901; retired 1907.

KIDD, Benjamin, The Warders, Tonbridge, Kent, a. 50; formerly in Civil Service; published in 1894 "Social Evolution," which has been translated into many languages; followed it eight years later with "Principles of Western Civilisation," which has also been translated (new edition, 1908). Herbert Spencer Lecturer, Oxford University, 1908.

KIDSTON, Hon. Wm., Brisbane, a. 60; Premier of Queensland (for the second time), 1908; a Scot who went to Australia 27 years ago.

KIPLING, Rudyard, Bateman's, Burwash, Sussex, a. 43; while a youth on the "Civil and Military Gazette," Lahore, wrote poems and short stories, the fame of which reached Europe; travelled extensively, and lived for ome time in America; has made an extraordinary reputation by his stories and poems; his latest fairy book is "Puck of Pook's Hill." Visited Canada in 1907; hon. D.Litt. of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham; has received the Nobel Literature Prize (1907).

KIRK, Sir John, 3, Raleigh Gardens, Brixton Hill, S.W., a. 61; knighted in May, 1907, by the King in recognition of over forty years' work for the Shaftesbury Society. Co-opted on L.C.C. Old Age Pension Committee; actively identified with Brotherhood movement and many forms of Christian philanthropy.

KITCHENER OF KHARTUM, Viscount, Commander-in-Chief, India, since 1902, a. 58; passed from the R.M. Academy, Woolwich, into Royal Engineers in 1871, and since then has had career full of hard work; assisted survey of Cyprus and Palestine; proceeded to Egypt, where he remodelled Egyptian Army; as Sirdar conducted further operations against the Khalifa, built a railway to Omdurman and there destroyed Khalifa's army; raised to Peerage and received grant of £30,000 from Parliament; became Chief of Staff to Lord Roberts, after whose return to England was promoted Commander of the Forces in South Africa, and brought the long campaign to a close; received thanks of Parliament, viscounty, and further grant of £50,000. His disagreement with Lord Curzon as to military control in India led to the Viceroy's resignation, 1905; now completing scheme of Indian Army reorganisation.

KNOLLYS, Lord (of Caversham), St. James's Palace, S.W., a. 71; private secretary to the King; head of a family whose ancestors were closely associated with the Court from the time of the Knollys who was Elizabeth's Treasurer of the Household.

KOCH, Dr. Robert, Institute of Hygiene, Berlin, a. 65; famous bacteriologist, who discoverd the cholera and phthisis bacilli; has perfected means of grappling with rinderpest; his dictum that bovine tuberculosis is not infectious has aroused protracted controversy, and is rejected by many eminent specialists.

KOMURA, Count Jutaro, G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., 4, Grosvenor Gardens, S.W., a. 53; principal Japanese Envoy at the Peace Conference with Russia. A graduate of Harvard irty-one years ago; succeeded Viscount Hayashi as Japanese ambassador to Great Britain, 1906.

KROPOTKIN, Prince Peter, 5, Onslow Villas, Muswell Hill Road, N., a. 66; scholar and scientist of world-wide repute, whose writings have been translated into every European language; was thrown into a Russian fortress as a political suspect; escaped and came to England; sentenced at Lyons (1883) to five years' imprisonment for a political offence; liberated 1886; in England, which is now permanently his home, he has devoted himself to writing on scientific and philosophic subjects; is the leader of intellectual Anarchism.

KUBELIK, Jan., Bychor, bei Kolin, Bohemia, a. 29; violinist of international fame, idolised in England and America. The son of a gardener at Prague, he was the first pupil to be trained by the now famous Sevcik, and his début at the age of 18 was perhaps the most brilliant ever known.

LABOUCHERE, Henry, Villa Cristina, Florence, a. 77; founder and editor of "Truth," to which he gave a famous description, "a brighter and better 'World'"; represented Northampton from 1880 until 1906; acted as intermediary between Gladstone and Chamberlain during Home Rule negotiations 1886.

LANG, Andrew, 1, Marloes Road, W., a. 64; an indefatigable and versatile man of letters; essayist, novelist, biographer, historian, creator and collector of fairy stories, author of erudite works on human origins, translator, in collaboration, of Homer; an authority on psychical research and on many sports; poet and antiquary, and writer of gossipy columns in the papers and mag zines. Completed his "History of Scotland" 1907.

LANKESTER, Prof. Sir Edwin Ray, Athenæum Club, a. 61; ex-director of Natural History Museum, South Kensington; president and founder Marine Biological Assoc.; editor of the "Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science"; President British Association, 1906; K.C.B., 1907; now engaged on important Treatise on Zoology.

LANSDOWNE, Marquis of, Lansdowne House, W., a. 64; Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, 1900-05; Secretary for War, 1895-1900; Viceroy of India, 1888-1893; Gov.-Gen. of Canada, 1883-1888; his administration at the Foreign Office was conspicuous for the number of treaties of arbitration arranged with foreign Powers and for the agreements with France and Japan. Leader of the Opposition in the Lords.

LASCELLES, Rt. Hon. Sir F., Travellers' Club, a. 67; served under the Foreign Office in various Balkan capitals; has been Ambassador to Russia and Minister to Persia; Ambassador to Germany, 1895-1908.

LAURIER, Rt. Hon. Sir Wilfrid, 335, Laurier Avenue, Ottawa, a. 67; after being called to the Bar, entered the Federal Assembly, became Minister for the Interior and leader of the Liberal Party, and in 1896 Premier of the Dominion, being the first French-Canadian to hold the post; returned to power for the fourth term in succession, 1908; very prominent at the Imperial Conference, 1907; advocates "All Red Route."

LAVERY, John, R.S.A., R.H.A., 5, Cromwell Place, S.W., a. 52; the most prominent member of the group known as the "Glasgow School"; a portrait painter of great distinction; pictures from his brush can be found at the National or Municipal Galleries of Pittsburg, Paris, Philadelphia, Brusssels, Munich, New South Wales, Venice, Berlin, Glasgow, and Edinburgh.

LAW, A. Bonar, M.P., Kintillo, Helensburgh, N.B., a. 50; before taking up politics was a Glasgow iron merchant; entered Parliament, 1900, and established himself by a single speech; Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade, 1902-05. Lost his seat in 1906 election, but was returned for Dulwich; recognised as most powerful advocate of Tariff Reform in the House.

LAW, Rev. Thomas, Memorial Hall, E.C., a. 54; secretary of the National Free Church Council; is a United Methodist; has a remarkable organising gift which he has devoted to the building up of the mechanism of the Free Church Council movement all over the country.

LAWLEY, Hon. Sir Arthur, Madras, a. 48; Lt.-Gov. of the Transvaal, 1902-5; is a younger son of Lord Wenlock; has been Governor of Western Australia and Administrator of Matabeleland. Now governor of Madras.

LAWRENCE, Mrs. Pethick, 4, Clement's Inn, W.C.; treasurer of the Women's Social and Political Union, and a leader of the aggressive Suffragists; co-editor, with her husband, of the Suffragist paper "Votes for Women"; some years ago was known as Sister Emmeline of the West London Mission. Her husband was the last proprietor of the "Echo."

LEADER, B. W., R.A., Burrows Cross, Gomshall, Guildford, a. 78; Chevalier of the Legion of Honour; has exhibited at the Royal Acadamey for 54 years; his English landscapes excel all others in pop

LEE, Sidney, 108A, Lexham Gardens, Kensington, a. 49; shared with Sir Leslie Stephen the editorship of the "Dictionary of National Biography," completing the work alone, 1891–1901; has written the standard Life of Shakespeare, on whom he is the leading authority; wrote a life of Queen Victoria in 1902.

LEFROY, Very Rev. Wm., Dean of Norwich, a. 73; one of the founders of the Liverpool bishopric; has restored Norwich Cathedral, and built several churches in Liverpool and Switzerland. An enthusiastic mountaineer and musician.

LE SAGE, J. M., Clement's Inn, W.C., a. 71; managing editor of the "Daily Telegraph," with which journal he has been connected for 40 years.

LEWIS, Sir George, 88, Portland Place, W., a. 76; senior member of the firm of Lewis & Lewis, and the most famous solicitor in England; familiar with the secrets of half the country; practically all the causes célèbres of the last half century have been through his hands.

LIDGETT, Rev. J. Scott, M.A., Bermondsey Settlement, Farnborough Street, S.E., a. 55; President Wesleyan Methodist Conference, 1908; an ex-president of the National Free Church Council; warden of Bermondsey Settlement, and editor of "Methodist Times"; one of the strongest Progressive forces in Wesleyan Methodism; Alderman of L.C.C.

LINDLEY, Lord, East Carleton, Norwich, a. 81; after successful career at the Bar became Judge of Court of Common Pleas, Lord Justice of Appeal, Master of the Rolls, and Lord of Appeal in Ordinary. Is the author of works on the law of partnership and companies.

LIPTON, Sir Thomas Johnstone, Bart., K.C.V.O., Osidge, Southgate, Middlesex, a. 59; Grand Officer of Crown of Italy, one of H.M.'s Lieutenants for City of London; Chairman of Lipton, Ltd.; owns tea estates in Ceylon; owner of yachts Erin, Shamrock III., and Shamrock; challenged for America Cup 1899, 1901, and 1903; founded the Alexandra Trust for providing the poor with cheap wholesome meals; unmarried; still hopes to lift the America Cup.

LISTER, Lord, 12, Park Crescent, Regent's Park, a. 81; Sergeant-surgeon to the King; founder of the epoch-making antiseptic system of treatment in surgery, which has saved innumerable lives; received remarkable tribute on his 80th birthday.

LIVERPOOL, Bishop of (Dr. F. J. Chavasse), The Palace, Liverpool, a. 62; long distinguished as Principal of Wycliffe Hall and as an Evangelical Churchman at Oxford; is a Liberal, moderate and scholarly, and has done much to promote the new Liverpool Cathedral.

LLOYD-GEORGE, David, M.P., 11, Downing Street, S.W., a. 45; became Chancellor of the Exchequer 1908, after making great reputation at the Board of Trade; a solicitor; keen and effective debater. Was the leader of Wales in its revolt against the Education Act; a strategist of great courage and an orator. An advocate of Welsh disestablishment.

LOCKYER, Sir Norman, K.C.B., 16, Penywern Road, S.W., a. 72. Director of Solar Physics Observatory, South Kensington; has by his researches in spectrum analysis proved himself one of the most successful explorers of the region between physics and astronomy.

LODGE, Sir Oliver Joseph, Mariemont, Edgbaston, Principal of Birmingham University, a. 57; one of the most influential of living thinkers; a pioneer of wireless telegraphy; inventor of machinery for dispelling fog; prominent in psychical research, with a profound faith in the ultimate unity of science and religion; his book, "Man and the Universe," is the latest of a series in which he has dealt

with religious ideas in the light of modern science and criticism; his "Catechism for Parents and Teachers" (1907) aroused widespread discussion.

LOMBROSO, Cesare, Turin University, a. 73; most famous alienist and criminologist in Europe; author of many books on his special subjects, particularly the pathology of genius; formerly an Army surgeon; a linguist and keen student of the occult; visited England 1908.

LONDON, Bishop of, Fulham Palace, S.W., a. 51; Dr. Winnington-Ingram was formerly head of Oxford House, Bethnal Green, preached every Sunday afternoon in Victoria Park, and did a great work among the poor; was Bishop of Stepney before translation to present see in 1901; a man of broad views and generous sympathies with all classes; had a most enthusiastic welcome in Canada and the States in 1907.

LONDONDERRY, Marquis of, Londonderry House, Park Lane, a. 56; President of the Board of Education 1902-5; Lord President of the Council, 1903-5; was Postmaster-General during the negotiations for amalgamating telephone systems; owns large collieries. Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, 1886–89.

LONG, Rt. Hon. W., M.P., 51, Cadogan Gardens, S.W., a. 54; late Chief Secretary for Ireland, formerly President of the Local Government Board and of the Board of Agriculture. Defeated at Bristol in the 1905 election, he now sits for S. Dublin. One of the leaders of the Opposition.

LORD MAYOR OF LONDON, 1908–9 ***(Sir Geo. Truscott),*** Mansion House, E.C., a. 51; head of a large firm of printers and stationers; member of the City Corporation for 26 years; Sheriff, 1902–3; a prominent Conservative and Churchman; knighted at the Coronation visit of the King and Queen to the City, 1902.

LOREBURN, Lord, 8, Eaton Place, S.W., a. 62; Liberal Lord Chancellor, better known as Sir Robert Reid. A very distinguished lawyer and parliamentarian. Has been Solicitor-General and Attorney-General. Was made a G.C.M.G. for his services on Venezuelan Boundary Arbitration Commission, 1899. Married Miss Hicks-Beach, 1908.

LOWTHER, Rt. Hon. J. W., Speaker's House, Westminster, S.W., a. 53; was Chairman of Committees and Deputy Speaker, 1895–1905; in June, 1905, unanimously elected Speaker, in which office he has won golden opinions from all parties in the House. Sits for Penrith as a Conservative.

LOWTHER, Sir Gerald, British Embassy, Constantinople, a. 51; transferred from Tangier to the Porte, 1908, and had a striking reception on his arrival at the time of the declaration of the new Turkish Constitution; a brother of the Speaker.

LUCAS, E. V., Froghole, Edenbridge, Kent, a. 40; biographer, essayist, editor, and the most accomplished anthologist of the day; editor and biographer of Charles Lamb; has lately published "Over Bemerton's" (his second novel), and "Her Infinite Variety" (an anthology of prose and verse in praise of women); is on the staff of "Punch," and joint author, with Mr. C. L. Graves, of "Wisdom While You Wait," "If," and several other diverting skits.

LUCY, H. W., J.P., 42, Ashley Gardens, S.W., and Whitehorn, Hythe, Kent, a. 63; "Toby, M.P.," of "Punch"; Parliamentary correspondent of the "Daily News" for over a quarter of a century, and editor for a year and a half; the first of Parliamentary sketch-writers; published, 1908, "Memories of Eight Parliaments," and "Sixty Years in the Wilderness."

LUGARD, Lieut.-Col. Sir F. D., Hong-Kong, a. 50; saw varied service in Asia and Africa; first High Commissioner Northern Nigeria, 1900–06; Governor of Hong Kong, 1907. To his exertion we owe Uganda and our East African Protectorate and Northern Nigeria. Married Miss Flora L. Shaw, 1902.

LYTTELTON, Hon. Alfred, K.C., M.P., 16, Great College Street, Westminster, a. 51; Colonial Secretary, 1903–05, in succession to Mr. Chamberlain, after Lord Milner had declined the position; celebrated in athletics as a young man; defeated, 1905, at Leamington, returned for St. George's, Hanover Square.

LYTTELTON, Rev. the Hon. Edward, Eton College, a. 53; appointed headmaster of Eton, 1905; late head of Haileybury; "a man of high aims, great earnestness, and with the courage of his convictions." Was famous at Eton and Cambridge as a cricketer. Is grandson of the Lady Lyttelton who was governess to King Edward. Is ambidextrous.

LYTTELTON, Gen. Rt. Hon. Sir N. G., K.C.B., Royal Hospital, Dublin, a. 63; Commander-in-Chief in Ireland, 1908; commanded Forces in South Africa, 1902–4; Chief of General Staff, 1904–8; has served in Canada, India, Gibraltar, Egypt. One of eight brothers—sons of the fourth Lord Lyttelton; one was Colonial Secretary, another is headmaster of Eton. Mr. C. F. G. Masterman married his daughter.

MAARTENS, Maarten (J. M. W. van der Poorten-Schwartz), 1, Whitehall Gardens, S.W., a. 50; novelist and dramatist, of Dutch birth; has established a high position in English fiction with over a dozen novels.

McCALLUM, Col. Sir H.E., G.C.M.G., Colombo, a. 56; Governor of Ceylon, 1907; in addition to holding with distinction various offices in the Straits Settlements, was Governor and Commander-in-Chief at Lagos, 1897–98; Governor of Newfoundland, 1898–1901; and Governor of Natal, 1901–01.

M'CARTHY, Justin, Herdholt, Westgate-on-Sea, a. 78; sat for 21 years in Parliament, and was Chairman (1890-96) of the Irish

Nationalist Party; equally well known as novelist and political writer, and by his invaluable "History of Our Own Times." Awarded, 1903, a Civil List annuity of £250. In 1904 published a volume of interesting reminiscences called "The Story of an Irishman," and in 1905 brought up his History to the King's accession.

McCARTHY, Lillah (Mrs. Granville Barker), 3, Clement's Inn, W.C., appeared with distinction as an amateur actress in the productions of the Elizabethan Stage Society; toured as leading lady with H. B. Irving (1895), Wilson Barrett (1900–1904); has made a name for herself at the Court and the Savoy in the plays of Bernard Shaw; played leading parts with Mr. Beerbohm Tree at His Majesty's Theatre.

MacCOLL, D. S., M.A., L.L.D., Tate Gallery, S.W., Keeper of the Tate Gallery; Lecturer on History of Art at University College, London; started the agitation against the Academy's handling of the Chantrey Bequest; art critic successively of the "Spectator" and "Saturday Review," in which papers the initials "D. S. M." became famous.

MacDONALD, Sir Claude M., Tokio, a. 56; Ambassador to Japan since 1900; after lengthy active Army experience, appointed to Foreign Office, becoming, 1896, British Minister to Peking, where he commanded the Legations during the siege of 1900.

MacDONALD, J. Ramsay, M.P., 3, Lincoln's Inn Fields, a. 42; organiser of the Labour Party; a Scot, and the son of a labourer; Chairman of the Independent Labour Party, and Secretary of the Labour Party in the House. Is a journalist, and effective writer on economic subjects; a speaker of great force, with an assured Parliamentary future. His wife is a daughter of Dr. Gladstone. Visited South Africa 1901, and Canada and Australia in 1906.

MACDONELL, Sir John, C.B., LL.D., 31, Kensington Park Gardens, W., a. 63; Master of the Supreme Court since 1889; one of the few English Associates of the Institut de Droit International; Quain Professor of Comparative Law, member of many distinguished bodies; edits "The Journal of Comparative Legislation" and the "Civil Judicial Statistics." Dean of Law Faculty, London University. Has written much on law and political economy. Has been a Royal Commissioner to South Africa to inquire into Shipping Combinations.

MacDONNELL, Lord, Reform Club, a. 65; has had a brilliant career in Indian Civil Service, and his statue stands in Lucknow; as Under-Secretary in Ireland was largely instrumental in passing Mr. Wyndham's Land Act; retired, 1908; a Roman Catholic and a Devolutionist.

McKENNA, Reginald, M.P., Admiralty House, Whitehall, S.W., a. 45; First Lord of the Admiralty; Financial Secretary to the Treasury, 1905–7; President of the Board of Education, 1907–8; called to the Bar in 1887; represented North Monmouthshire since 1895; combines a faculty for mathematics with a love of rowing, and has distinguished himself in the schools and on the river.

MACKENZIE, Sir A. C., Mus. Doc., LL.D., F.R.A.M., 4, Tenterden St., Hanover Square, a. 61; Principal Royal Academy of Music, and composer of various operas, oratorios, and lesser works. Native of Edinburgh, studied in Germany and at the Royal Academy of Music.

MACKINNON, Lieut.-Gen. Sir W. H. 15, Ovington Sq., S.W., a. 56; commanded the C.I.V.'s in South Africa; nowD irector-General of the Territorial Forces; K.C.B., 1908.

MACLAGAN, Dr. W. D., Athenæum Club, a. 83; translated (1891) from bishopric of Lichfield to Archbishopric of York; resigned October, 1908.

M'LAREN Rev. Dr. Alex., Manchester, a. 83; minister for 45 years at Union Chapel, Manchester; resigned in 1903. The undisputed leader of English Nonconformity, and one of its greatest preachers. Presided over Baptist World's Congress, 1905.

MACLEAN, Kaid, Gen. Sir Harry, a. 60; for some 30 years military instructor to the Moroccan army, and Colonel of the Sultan's Bodyguard; captured in 1907 by the rebel Raisuli, released in 1908; was formerly in the Warwickshire Regt.; has been decorated for services to the British Government. Introduced the bagpipes into Morocco.

MACNAMARA, Dr. T. J., M.P., Rollscourt Avenue, Herne Hill, S.E., a. 47; Secretary to the Admiralty; Under-Secretary Local Government Board, 1907–8; son of a soldier; first a teacher in an elementary school; turned to scholastic journalism and organisation of teachers; a competent authority on education. Has an increasing reputation in Parliament and the country.

MAETERLINCK, Maurice, 67, Rue Reynouard, Paris, a. 47; turned some ten years ago from the writing of mystic and romantic dramas to the expression of his philosophy of art and life in essays which (especially "Wisdom and Destiny") made him known to a wide circle of thoughtful readers in England and America; his "Life of the Bee" (1901) is a subtle contribution to sociology; this and his other prose writings were translated into English by Mr. Alfred Sutro.

MAHAN, Capt. Alfred T., 160, West 86th St., New York, a. 68; the leading naval historian; his book, "The Influence of Sea Power upon Modern History," has strengthened the hands of naval reformers in many lands; served in the United States Navy for 38 years, and took part in Civil War. In 1907 published a history of naval development, and in 1908 "Some Neglected Aspects of War."

MALLOCK, Wm. H., Bornhill, near Exeter, a. 59; Bachelors Club, London; won early fame with "The New Republic," a satire on modern thought and thinkers; since then has written travel, verse, fiction, philosophy, economics and social science; an untiring opponent of Socialism and scientific scepticism.

MANCHESTER, Bishop of; Right Rev. E. A. Knox, D.D., Bishopcourt, Manchester, a. 61; born in India; as Vicar of Aston, Birmingham, had a parish of 40,000 persons; while Bishop Suffragan organised Million Shillings' Fund for the diocese, and materially assisted Birmingham Bishopric Scheme; leader of Church party against the Liberal Education Bills.

MANCINELLI, Signor, Meina, Lago Maggiore; conductor of Italian opera at Covent Garden for 20 years; began life as a 'cellist in a theatre at Florence. The sudden illness of a conductor gave him his first chance to direct an opera, and his success was immediate. He came to England in 1886.

MARCHAMLEY, Lord, of Hawkstone, 31, Princes Gate, S.W., a. 53; better known as Mr. George Whiteley, Patronage Secretary to the Treasury and Chief Liberal Whip, 1905-8; was M.P. for Stockport from 1893-1900.

MARCHESI, Madame Blanche, 16, Greville Place, Kilburn Priory, N.W.; a brilliant prima donna; an especial favourite of Queen Victoria, who gave her the Diamond Jubilee Medal; began her career as a teacher, then chose the concert platform, 1896, and is now dramatic soprano on the operatic stage; this is just the reverse of other singers' careers.

MARCONI, Guglielmo Chevalier, Watergate House, Adelphi, W.C., a. 34; born Bologna (mother, an Irishwoman); educated at Leghorn and Bologna University. Instituted wireless telegraphy, by which first trans-oceanic message was transmitted in 1902; his system established on business basis, 1907. In receiving the hon. degree at Oxford of D.Sc., he was called "the magician who had found a way of transmitting signals from shore to shore, and from ship to ship." Hon. degree LL.D. (Glasgow).

MARLBOROUGH, Duke of, Blenheim Palace, Woodstock, a. 37; late Under-Secretary for the Colonies; assistant military secretary to Lord Roberts in S. Africa; Paymaster of the Forces, 1899–1902; married Consuelo, daughter of Mr. W. K. Vanderbilt. Owns 20,000 acres.

MARSHALL, Alfred, 6, Madingley Rd., Cambridge, a. 66; Professor of Political Economy, Cambridge, 1885–1908, Hon. Fellow of Balliol and Hon. D.Sc. Oxford and Cambridge. Corresponding Member of the Institute of France. His chief work is the first volume of his "Principles," 1890 (fifth, much enlarged, edition, 1907); its substance is presented in a popular form in the "Economics of Industry," the first outlines of which had been published by him with the co-operation of his wife in 1879.

MARTIN, Sir Theodore, K.C.B., K.C.V.O., 31, Onslow Sq., a. 92; practised as solicitor in Edinburgh and Parliamentary agent in London; married Helen Faucit, the famous actress; has written "Life" of Prince Consort and of Lord Lyndhurst, and translated Goethe, Horace, Virgil, Catullus, Dante, Heine, and Leopardi. Published biographical sketches of Queen Victoria, Garrick, Macready, and Rachel, 1906; also a Life of Helen Faucit.

MASON, A. E. W., 17, Stratton St., W., a. 43; one of the favourite novelists of the day; M.P. for Coventry; his most famous novels are "The Four Feathers," "The Truants," "Running Water," and "The Broken Road." He is an Oxford man, and has travelled much.

MASSINGHAM, H. W., 14, Henrietta St., W.C., a. 48; a strenuous, brilliant, and sensitive Liberal journalist; first known as editor of the "Star," and then editor of "Daily Chronicle"; resigned owing to difference with the proprietors on Boer War. Transformed "The Speaker" into "The Nation," which he has edited since March, 1907; visited Constantinople, 1908.

MASTERMAN, C. F. G., a young Liberal M.P., now Parliamentary Secretary to the Local Government Board, deeply interested in social and religious questions; his speeches have attracted much attention in the House by their intensity and sincerity. Was President of the Cambridge Union, and literary editor of the "Daily News." Is responsible for two striking books, "The Heart of the Empire" and "In Peril of Change." Married (1908) Miss Lucy Lyttelton.

MAUDE, Aylmer, Gt. Baddow, Chelmsford, a. 50; lived many years in Russia, and is the chief exponent in English of Tolstoy's teaching, and jointly with his wife has translated many of his books; his Life of Tolstoy (first 50 years) published 1908.

MAUDE, Cyril, 26, Cleveland Gardens, Hyde Park, a. 46; son of Capt. and the Hon. Mrs. Maude; made début on stage at Denver, Colorado, 1883; was for nine years co-manager of Haymarket Theatre; now lessee and manager of The Playhouse, Charing Cross; married (1888) Miss Winifred Emery.

MAUGHAM, W. S., 23, Mount St., W., a. 34; "'Liza of Lambeth" (1897) made his name as a writer of slum-life stories; is now among the most successful of playwrights; last year had four plays running in London simultaneously; his best is "Lady Frederick."

MAURICE, Major-Gen. Sir F., 9, Gwendwr Rd., W. Kensington, a. 67; son and biographer of F. D. Maurice; served in Ashantee 1873–4, South Africa 1879–80, Egypt 1882, and Sudan 1884; late in command Woolwich District; originated Army Cycle Corps; recognised authority as writer on military subjects; compiled the official history of Boer War; 1904, published "The Diary of Sir John Moore."

MAXIM, Sir Hiram, Thurlow Park, Norwood Rd., West Norwood, a. 69; born of Puritan stock in Maine, U.S.A.; inventor of the automatic system of firearms, and director of Vickers, Sons, & Maxim; has done much in electrical inventions; now chiefly concerned in solving problem of aerial flight.

MAXSE, L. J., 23, Ryder St., S.W., editor of the "National Review"; a severe critic of German policy and an ardent Tariff Reformer.

MEATH, Earl of, 83, Lancaster Gate, W., a. 67; formerly in the Diplomatic Service; interested in philanthropic and social movements; an Imperialist, who is striving for recognition throughout Greater Britain of an annual Empire Day, and of the systematic teaching of patriotism in the schools.

MELBA, Mme. (Mrs. C. Armstrong), 30, Great Cumberland Place, W., the queen of song of the present day, is, like many other famous singers, a Colonial. She takes her name from her native city, Melbourne. After singing for twenty months in a half-amateur way in Australia, Mme. Melba came to Europe, studied under Marchesi in Paris, and then appeared, a brilliant new star, at the Brussels opera house. Covent Garden saw her début in 1888, and now a "Melba night" marks the height of the operatic season. The famous prima donna is one of London's social hostesses, and her gatherings at her beautiful house at Hyde Park are as brilliant as any in London.

MENELIK, Emperor of Abyssinia, a. 64; succeeded to the throne in 1889, and has proved a strong and progressive ruler; defeated the Italian armies when an attempt was made to establish an Italian protectorate; has done much to develop Abyssinia.

MENPES, Mortimer, R.I., R.E., 25, Cadogan Gardens, S.W.; born in South Australia; first exhibited etchings Royal Academy, 1880; since won special fame by his pictures of Japan, his Transvaal War studies, and his series of books illustrated in colour.

MEREDITH, George, Flint Cottage, Boxhill, Surrey, a. 81; a son of Hampshire; the most cryptic, brilliant, and epigrammatic of modern novelists; venerated by all littérateurs; President Society of Authors; published first book of poems 54 years ago, and his most famous novel, "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel," in 1859. Received the O.M. 1905. His 80th birthday (Feb. 12th, 1908) was the occasion of a tribute from representative British authors.

MERRIMAN, Hon. J. X., a. 67; succeeded Dr. Jameson as Premier of Cape Colony, 1908; educated in England, and entered S. African politics 40 years ago; has held office in several Cape Ministries.

METCHNIKOFF, Prof. Elie, Pasteur Institute, Paris; is the discoverer of the functions of the white corpuscles in human blood. Believes that old age is a chronic disease for which science will find a cure. Lectured in London, May, 1906. His books on "Immunity in Infective Diseases," "The Nature of Man," and "Prolongation of Life" have been widely read in England.

METTERNICH, ZUR GRACHT, Count Paul Wolff, 9, Carlton House Terrace, S.W., a. 55; German Ambassador in London; has had 27 years' experience in German diplomatic service; is descended from an old Catholic family on the Rhine, and has travelled a good deal with the German Emperor.

MEYER, Rev. F. B., Memorial Hall, Farringdon St., E.C., a. 61; a prominent minister of the Baptist Church; was for many years at Christ Church in Westminster Bridge Road. Formerly assistant to Mr. A. Birrell's father as minister in Liverpool. Devotes his time to the service of the Free Church Council; visited South Africa, 1908.

MEYNELL, Mrs. Alice, Granville Place Mansions, W.; poet and essayist; was art critic of the "Pall Mall Gazette"; her elder sister is Lady Butler, painter of "The Roll-Call."

MIDLETON, Viscount, 34, Portland Place, W., a. 52; Secretary of State for India, 1903–5; Secretary for War from 1900–3; author of the abandoned Army Corps scheme; lost his Parliamentary seat after holding it 25 years. Played an active part in the controversy leading to resignation, in August, 1905, of Lord Curzon.

MILNER, Viscount, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., Sturry Court, Kent, a. 54; ex-Governor of Transvaal and Orange River Colony, and High Commissioner of South Africa; after quitting Balliol was called to the Bar; entered journalism, and served under Stead régime on "Pall Mall Gazette"; after three years as Financial Sec. in Egypt, and five as Chairman of Board of Inland Revenue, was appointed Governor of the Cape; met President Kruger at the abortive Bloemfontein Conference, and was chief representative of Great Britain both before and during the war; visited England in 1901, and was raised to Peerage and accorded brilliant reception. Resigned, April, 1905, after eight years' arduous toil. An address in appreciation of his services with over 370,000 signatures was presented to him in 1906. Visited Canada, 1908.

MINTO, Earl of, Government House, Calcutta, a. 61; late Governor-General of Canada; served with Turkish Army (1877), in the Afghan War, First Egyptian Campaign, and the Canadian Rebellion of 1885. Now Viceroy of India, succeeding Lord Curzon.

MITCHELL, H. Isaac, 58, Voltaire Road, Clapham, S.W., succeeded Mr. C. Drummond in 1907 as Labour correspondent of the Board of Trade; for nine years Secretary of the General Federation of Trade Unions.

MOND, Dr. Ludwig, F.R.S., 20, Avenue Road, Regent's Park, N.W., a. 69; a famous chemist, of German birth; been in England 40 years, invented and introduced many new valuable processes; Director of Brunner, Mond & Co., Mond Nickel Co., etc.; his gas for power purposes is being extensively used.

MONTAGU, Lord, of Beaulieu, 168, Piccadilly, W., a. 42; a great sportsman and expert motorist; edits "The Car" and other publications; was "Times" correspondent in the Matabele War. As the Hon. J. W. E. Scott-Montagu was a popular Member of Parliament until succeeding to the Peerage, 1905.

MONYPENNY, W. F., "Times" Office, E.C., a. 42; went from the "Times" to edit the "Johannesburg Star," 1899; now writing the authoritative Life of Lord Beaconsfield.

MOOR, Hon. F. R., Greystone, Natal, a. 55; Premier of Natal since November, 1906; forsook diamond digging for farming, which he has successfully combined with politics; has been a member of the Natal Legislative Assembly since 1886.

MORANT, Sir R. L., K.C.B., 39, Rutland Gate, S.W., a. 45; Permanent Secretary of the Board of Education since 1903; organised public education in Siam; has taken an active part in educational and social work in the East End.

MORGAN, J. Pierpont, 219, Madison Avenue, New York, a. 71; son of a millionaire banker; was born Hartford, Conn., studied in Germany, and entered his father's firm when 21; in February, 1901, formed the Steel Trust, with a capital of £220,000,000, the greatest combination on record; he collects pictures and art treasures all over the world.

MORLEY, Viscount, of Blackburn, Flowermead, Wimbledon Park, a. 70; Secretary for India; began his career in daily journalism on the "Morning Star"; went from editorial chair of "Pall Mall Gazette" into the Cabinet as Chief Secretary for Ireland; is the supreme living example of the statesman-litterateur; his "Life of Gladstone" was the great literary event of 19[illegible]; has written brilliant critical biographies of Voltaire, Burke, Cobden, Cromwell, etc. The famous library collected by Lord Acton was presented to him by Mr. Carnegie, and passed on to Cambridge University. Member of the Order of Merit, Hon. Professor of Ancient Literature in Royal Academy, Bencher of Lincoln's Inn; Trustee of British Museum. Hon. Fellow of All Souls College; visited the United States in 1904.

MOROCCO, Sultan of (Mulai Hafid), a. 36; half-brother of the lost Sultan, Abdul Aziz, whom he overthrew and deposed in 1908. Unlike his predecessor, he is an orthodox Moslem, but not an enemy of progress; those who know him predict that he will prove an energetic and intelligent ruler.

MORRISON, Dr. G. E., Pekin. Pekin correspondent of the "Times," one of the ablest journalists of the day. Sent first authoritative account of Stoessel's surrender of Port Arthur. Has a very intimate knowledge of China and its affairs. Has tramped across Australia and large portions of China and Siberia. Is an Australian by birth, and an M.D. of Edinburgh.

MOSELY, Alfred, C.M.G., West Lodge, Hadley Wood, Middlesex, a. 53; a wealthy retired merchant who, at his own expense, has sent two commissions to the United States to study (1) the methods of industry (1902) and (2) the methods of education, (1903). Conducted a large number of teachers to U.S.A. and Canada (1906-7), and organised the reception in U.K. of 1,000 Canadian and U.S. school teachers (1908-9); member of the Tariff Commission, 1904-7.

MOULTON, Rt. Hon. Sir J. Fletcher, P.C., F.R.S., 57, Onslow Sq., S.W., a. 64; Senior Wrangler, and one of the giants of his day at Cambridge; the greatest living authority on patent law. Now a Lord Justice of the Court of Appeal.

MOUNTSTEPHEN, Lord, Brocket Hall, Hatfield, a. 79; was the first president of the Canadian Pacific Railway and of the St. [illegible] and Manitoba Railway, now retired; made princely gift to London hospitals, 1902; and in 1905 presented to the King's Hospital Fund securities representing £25,000 a year.

MURRAY, Sir J. A. H., Oxford, a. 70; historical philologist and lexicographer; editor of the great Oxford English Dictionary, begun in 1879, and now nearing completion; Romanes Lecturer, 1900; one of the foremost authorities on the history of the English language.

MURRAY, Prof. Gilbert, Christ Church, Oxford, a. 43; appointed in 1908 Regius Professor of Greek at Oxford University; for ten years Professor at Glasgow; scholar and humanist, historian of Greek literature, and translator of Euripides; an advanced thinker and stimulating teacher; married to the eldest daughter of Lady Carlisle.

NANSEN, Fridtjof, Lysaker, near Christiania, Norway, a. 47; made his first Arctic exploration in 1882, followed by a second in 1889, when he crossed Greenland; from 1893 to 1896 was engaged in his famous expedition in the "Fram," when he penetrated farther north than any of his predecessors. Professor of Zoology at Christiania University. Took an active part, 1905, in effecting separation of Norway from Sweden, and was the first Norwegian Ambassador to England; resigned 1908.

NATHAN, Sir Matthew, G.C.M.G., a. 47; Governor of Natal; Governor of Hong Kong, 1903-7; Administrator Sierra Leone, 1899-1903; while on his way home from Hong Kong fell into the harbour when entering a sampan from the steamer, and narrowly escaped drowning. Is a remarkable example of a British Jew rising rapidly in the service of his country.

NEVILLE, Sir R., Royal Courts of Justice, a. 60; Judge of the High Court; joined the Bar in 1872; chairman of the Garden City Association.

NEWNES, Sir George, Bart., M.P. for Swansea, a. 58; 4, Whitehall Court, S.W., Wildcroft, Putney Heath, S.W., and Hollerday, Lynton, Devon; son of Rev. T. M. Newnes; founder of "Tit-Bits," "The Strand Magazine," and other periodicals; formerly proprietor of "The Westminster Gazette." His son Frank is also an M.P.

NEWSHOLME, Dr. A., appointed 1908 Chief Medical Officer of the Local Government Board; many years Medical Officer of Health, Brighton; an eminent authority on public health.

NICHOLLS, George, 162, Lincoln Road, Peterborough, a. 44; the only agricultural labourer in the present House of Commons.

Was on the land till he was 20, then became a navvy and worked in stone pits. Was a Congregational pastor till he became M.P., and still preaches.

NICHOLSON, General Sir W. B., G.C.B., War Office, Whitehall, S.W.; Chief of the General Staff, and First Military Member of the Army Council, a. 63; fought in all the military expeditions of his time since 1865. Military Secretary in South Africa to Commander-in-Chief, and Director of Transports at headquarters. Was with the Japanese Army in Russo-Japanese War.

NICOLL, Dr. W. Robertson, Bay Tree Lodge, Hampstead, a. 57; founder and editor of the "British Weekly," the "Bookman," and other periodicals; an omnivorous reader and a prolific writer, probably the best equipped journalist and theologian of the day; published (1908) the Life of Ian Maclaren.

NICOLSON, Rt. Hon. Sir A., St. Petersburg, a. 79; our ambassador in St. Petersburg since 1905; awarded G.C.M.G. for services in connection with the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907, which he signed; was British representative at the Algeciras Conference; entered Foreign Office 37 years ago, and has wide experience of diplomatic and consular work.

NIGHTINGALE, Florence, South Street, Park Lane, W., a. 88; for her services to the wounded in the Crimea she received a testimonial of £50,000, which she devoted to the founding of the Nightingale Home for the Training of Nurses. Besides initiating the modern system of training nurses, has done much to reform sanitation, especially in the Army and India. Given the Freedom of the City of London, 1908. O.M., 1907.

NIKISCH, Herr, by many people thought to be the greatest living conductor, is a Hungarian by birth, an... director of the Royal Opera at Buda-Pesth. So extraordinary is his influence over the players that he has even been accused of mesmerising them. He has made frequent appearances in England.

NORDAU, Max., 8, Rue Léonie, Paris, a. 59; traveller, physician, scholar, author, orator, and the most ardent of Zionists; made famous by "Degeneration," a furious attack on Romanticism, 1893. One of the greatest of living Jews.

NORDICA, Madame Zoltan Döme, a. 49; an American prima-donna, whose impersonation of Marguerite in "Faust" has made her the operatic idol of two continents. She is planning "an American Bayreuth" on the shores of the Hudson.

NORFOLK, Duke of, Norfolk House, St. James's Square, a. 61; Premier Duke of England, and head of an ancient Catholic family; was Postmaster-General, resigned to join the Imperial Yeomanry in Africa; as Earl Marshal played chief part, next to their Majesties, at the Coronation; married, in 1904, Hon. Gwendolen Constable-Maxwell, who gave birth to an heir in 1908.

NORTHCOTE, Lord, Governor-General of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1903-8, a. 62; younger son of Sir Stafford Northcote, 1st Earl of Iddesleigh; was private secretary to Lord Salisbury on his mission to Constantinople; formerly Financial Secretary to War Office and Governor of Bombay.

O'BRIEN, Wm., Mallow Cottage, Westport, a. 56; Nationalist M.P., and journalist; founded "United Ireland," the "Irish People," and the United Irish League; has been prosecuted nine times and imprisoned for over two years; published his "Reminiscences" in 1906.

O'CONNOR, T. P., M.P., Oakley Lodge, Chelsea, a. 60; came to London nearly 40 years ago; founded successively the "Star," the "Sun," "Weekly Sun," "M.A.P.," "T.P.'s Weekly," and "P.T.O.," retaining interest only in "M.A.P."; editor-in-chief of "Era"; brilliant with pen and tongue; for a quarter of a century President of the United Irish League.

OLIVIER, Sir Sydney, K.C.M.G., a. 49; Governor of Jamaica; a prominent Fabian and an acknowledged expert on West Indian affairs. Entered Colonial Office 1882. Prior to his latest appointment, "his work as Vice-Governor disproved," said "The Nation," "the common British fallacy that a man of high intellectual and imaginative power bungles the practical affairs of Government."

ONSLOW, Earl of, 7, Richmond Terrace S.W., a. 55; has been Governor of New Zealand, Parliamentary Secretary to Board of Trade, Under-Secretary for India, twice Under-Secretary for the Colonies, and President of the Board of Agriculture. Appointed, 1905, Chairman of House of Lords Committees.

ORCHARDSON, Sir Wm. Q., R.A., 13, Portland Place, a. 73; an eminent painter of subject pictures, many of which, notably "Napoleon ... the Bellerophon" and the "Salon of Mme. Récamier," are known by engravings all over the kingdom; knighted in 1907.

OSLER, Dr. Wm., 13, Norham Gardens, Oxford, a. 59; Regius Professor of Medicine, Oxford University, since 1904. Canadian born, has had brilliant career in Canada and America; unsuccessful in election for Lord Rector at Edinburgh, 1908. Published essays entitled "An Alabama Student," 1908.

OTTLEY, Sir Charles L., R.N., 2, Whitehall Gardens, S.W., a. 51; Director of Naval Intelligence; Secretary of the Committee of Imperial Defence; was principal British Naval representative at The Hague 1907; has had a varied diplomatic experience; the inventor of "blockade mines," as well as a staunch advocate of the limitations of their use. K.C.M.G., 1907.

OYAMA, Field-Marshal, Prince (1907), a. 66; Chief of the Headquarters Staff, Japanese Army; led the Second Army in the Chino-Japanese war; took Port Arthur, Talienwan, and Wei-hai-Wei in that war. He took supreme command of the Japanese armies in July, 1904, and dealt blow after blow at the Russian forces, until the great victory at Mukden was won.

PADEREWSKI, the most famous pianist of our day, a. 48; married (1889) the Baroness de Rosen. No pianist has ever earned such fees as he; for a few months' tour in America he once received a cheque for his net profits amounting to £33,000. Paderewski started life as a music teacher, and did not think of becoming a concert pianist until after the death of his first wife. First appearance in London, 1890.

PANKHURST, Christabel, 4, Clement's Inn, W.C., the Portia of the Suffragists, and their most brilliant orator; secretary of the W.S.P.U. Is an LL.B. of Manchester University; defended herself, her mother, and Mrs. Drummond at Bow St., Oct., 1908, against the charge of inciting to disturbance, and examined Mr. Lloyd-George and Mr. Herbert Gladstone as witnesses; was sentenced to ten weeks' imprisonment.

PANKHURST, Mrs., 4, Clement's Inn, W.C.; founder (1903) of the Women's Social and Political Union and head of the aggressive Suffragists; widow of the Manchester politician, Dr. Pankhurst; sentenced to three months' imprisonment, Oct., 1908, for inciting to riot by urging the populace to "rush the House of Commons."

PARKE, Ernest, Stonecutter St., E.C. a. 49; managing editor of the "Morning Leader" and "Star." Experiments on his farm with respect to the effect of artificial manures have been of great value and interest.

PARKER, Sir Gilbert, M.P., 20, Carlton House Terrace, S.W., a. 46; a novelist whose novels of Canadian, Egyptian, and Channel Islands life, such as "The Seats of the Mighty," "The Right of Way," and "Donovan Pasha," have gained readers throughout the English-speaking world; once a journalist in Australia.

PARKER, Louis N., 3, Pembroke Rd., Kensington W., a. 56; dramatist and composer; after producing nearly fifty plays (original or translated), designed the Sherborne historical pageant, thereby originating a new movement in local patriotism.

PARKIN, Dr. G. R., The Cottage, Goring, a. 63; organising representative Rhodes Trustees; formerly principal Upper Canada College; writer on Imperial Federation; biographer of Edward Thring and Sir John Macdonald.

PARKINA, Miss Elizabeth, a new soprano who is already a firm favourite, is a young American singer. Miss Parkina came to Europe, studied in Paris, and made an instant success at Covent Garden in 1904.

PARRATT, Sir Walter, Oxford, a. 68; appointed in 1908 Professor of Music at Oxford in succession to Sir H. Parry; organist of St. George's Chapel Royal, Windsor; an authority on the history of music; Master of the King's Musick.

PARRY, Sir C. Hubert, Bart., 17, Kensington Sq., W., a. 61; Director of Royal College of Music; Professor at Oxford until 1908; has written much on the history of music in addition to his musical composition; his cantata or symphonic poem, "The Vision of Life," given at the Cardiff Festival in 1907.

PARSONS, Hon. C. A., Holeyn Hall, Wylam-on-Tyne, a. 54; was the first man to build a commercially possible steam-turbine ashore and afloat. His vessel, Turbina, was at the time the fastest vessel ever built. Is managing director of the Parsons Marine Steam Turbine Company; is an Hon. D.Sc., Oxford, and a Fellow of the Royal Society.

PARTRIDGE, Bernard, 149, Church St., Chelsea, a. 47; son of a famous surgeon; first devoted himself to stained-glass designing; acted under the stage name of Bernard Gould; joined "Punch" staff 1901, and is now second cartoonist.

PATON, J. B., M.A., D.D., 22, Forest Road West, Nottingham, a. 78; Emeritus Principal Congregational Institute, Nottingham. A theologian, scholar, and social worker; founder of several social and educational societies, including the National Home Reading Union.

PATTI, Mme. Adelina, Craig-y-Nos Castle, Brecon, the greatest operatic prima donna the world has ever seen; of late years heard once a year, at the annual concert she has given at the Albert Hall. Mme. Patti was born at Madrid in 1843, taken to America when only a few years old, and in that country she appeared as a prodigy vocalist. When she came to England, a young girl of 17, she had to sing at three performances for nothing. Now she can get £1,000 for three songs, and must have earned nearly two millions during the course of her brilliant operatic career all over the world. The last time Mme. Patti appeared at Covent Garden (in 1895) she wore jewels worth £250,000. Mme. Patti has been married three times—first to the Marquis de Caux, then to Signor Nicolini, the famous tenor, and is now Baroness Cederström. Farewelled in London in 1906, and in Liverpool, Scotland, and Ireland in 1907.

PAUL, Herbert, M.P., 13, Tite Street, S.W., a. 55; man of letters with a glittering epigrammatic style; completed in 1906 his "History of Modern England," beginning with the downfall of Peel in 1846. His "Life of J. A. Froude" was published in 1906.

PEARSE, Mark Guy, 27, Buckingham Mansions, West Hampstead, N.W., a. 66; a Cornishman; Methodist minister, lecturer, and story-writer of influence and popularity. Was for some years the colleague of Hugh Price Hughes at the West London Mission.

PEARSON, Cyril Arthur, Frensham Place, Farnham, Surrey, a. 43; chief proprietor of the "Standard" (morning and evening), "Daily Express," and several provincial newspapers, as well as of popular magazines and periodicals.

PEARSON, Sir Weetman D., Bart., M.P., 16, Carlton House Terrace, a. 52; a great contractor in many lands. His firm are the managing partners of the Tehuantepec

Railway, the competitor of the Panama route; constructed the Blackwall Tunnel, and the four subaqueous tunnels under the East River, New York, to Long Island, for the Pennsylvania Railway Company; now building the great harbour at Dover. Has a son in the House.

PEARY, Lieut. Robert, Navy Dept., Washington, a. 54; a persistent and daring Arctic explorer, who, having completed three expeditions, was granted three years' leave of absence for a further voyage, for which he started in 1905. His plan was to make a dash for the Pole in 100 days from his most northerly base. Has reached "farthest North," and is now again trying to reach the Pole in the Roosevelt.

PEASE, Rt. Hon. J. A., M.P., 8, Hertford St., W., a. 48; Chief Liberal Whip; a famous master of hounds and all-round sportsman; P.C. 1908.

PEEL, Viscount, The Lodge, Sandy, Beds, a. 79; Speaker of the House of Commons 1884–95; since elevation to Peerage has done much work on commissions; drew up memorable Minority Report of the Licensing Commission; son of the great Sir Robert.

PEMBERTON, Max, Troxton Hall, near Bury St. Edmunds, a. 45; author of many novels of adventure: "Iron Pirate," "Kronstadt," "Beatrice of Venice," "The Hundred Days," "My Sword for Lafayette," etc.; his novel competition with Mary E. Wilkins (1908) aroused keen interest in America.

PERKS, Sir Robt., M.P., 11, Kensington Palace Gardens, W., a. 59; contractor, civil engineer; financially interested in London railways and great public works, especially in Brazil and Argentine; Liberal Imperialist; engineered the Methodist 20th Century Million Guineas Fund, all of which is paid; secured Westminster Aquarium site for Methodist headquarters, 1902. Is keenly interested in huge Canadian canal scheme to run from the Great Lakes to the St. Lawrence, greatly shortening the route to Europe; created a baronet in 1908.

PERSIA, Shah of (Muhammad Ali), a. 36; succeeded his father, Jan., 1907; a soldier-prince who has had a Western education; in 1908 revoked the new Constitution, suppressed the reform party in Teheran, and took forcible possession of the city; for several months afterwards was engaged in fighting the Nationalist forces in the country, especially at Tabriz.

PETRIE, Prof. W. M. Flinders, University College, London, a. 55; the revealer of ancient Egypt to the modern English world; has been for nearly 30 years excavating among the buried cities of Egypt, latterly in great part among the royal tombs, and has written extensively on this fascinating subject; holds the chair of Egyptology in University College.

PHILLIPS, Stephen, Woodthorpe Rd., Ashford, Middlesex; poet and dramatist; was an actor and Army tutor before developing his talent for verse; His "Paolo and Francesca," "Herod," "Ulysses," and "Nero," produced by Mr. Tree, who also (1908) played the version of "Faust" by Stephen Phillips and Comyns Carr.

PICHON, Stephen, a. 51 was French Minister at Pekin when M. Clemenceau, his friend and associate, chose him as Foreign Minister; successively doctor, journalist, and diplomatist; opposed to an adventurous foreign policy. Negotiated successfully the Casa Blanca incident, on which Germany threatened war.

PINERO, Arthur Wing, 14, Hanover Sq., W., Stillands, North Chapel, Sussex, a. 53; after six years on the stage, wrote farcical comedies, afterwards devoting himself to serious drama, notably "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," "The Gay Lord Quex," and "His House in Order; "The Thunderbolt" produced 1908.

PLUNKETT, Rt. Hon. Sir Horace, F.R.S., D.C.L., Kilteragh, Foxrock, co. Dublin, a. 54; ex-Vice-President of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland; President of the Irish Agricultural Organisation Society; a son of the late Lord Dunsany; went ranching in Wyoming after leaving college; sat in Parliament, 1892–1900; a constructive reformer, who has done wonders for the industries of his native land.

POLLOCK, Sir Frederick, 21, Hyde Park Place, W., a. 63; Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford, 1883–1903; has written on Spinoza, mountaineering, and the science of politics. Edits the "Law Quarterly" and Law Reports. His legal works are classics. An advocate of Imperial organisation.

POPE PIUS X., Giuseppe Sarto, a. 73; son of a peasant, born at Riese, in the Venetian Province of Treviso; was a parish priest until nearly 40 years of age; 1875 saw his first real advance, when he became successively canon of Treviso Cathedral, Episcopal Chancellor, Spiritual Director of Treviso College, Dean, and eventually Vicar-General; he made a reputation as a preacher, and when the see of Mantua fell vacant he was appointed. In 1893 was created Cardinal with the title of St. Bernardo alle Ferme and Patriarch of the ancient see of Venice. His election to the Papacy in 1903 was a complete surprise to the outside world, to whom his name was hardly known. His encyclicals against Socialism and the modern spirit in the Church have been much criticised.

POYNTER, Sir E. J., Bt., 70, Addison Road, Kensington, W., a. 72; of Huguenot ancestry, born in Paris; made designs for stained glass and drawings on wood; painter chiefly of classical subjects and portraits in oil and water colour and of landscape in water colour; has been Slade Professor, and Director of Art at South Kensington; Director of the National Gallery, 1894–1905; P.R.A., 1896.

PRICE, Hon. Thos., Perth, W.A., a. 57; Premier of West Australia, and Leader of the Labour Party; a Welshman who for years after emigrating (in 1883) worked as a stonecutter.

PROTHERO, George Walter, **24, Bedford Square, W.C., a. 60; formerly Professor of History at Edinburgh, now editor of the "Quarterly Review"; one of the editors of the Cambridge Modern History, and editor of the Cambridge Historical Series and author of the "Life of Simon de Montfort," a "Memoir of Henry Bradshaw," "Select Statutes of Elizabeth and James I.," etc.**

PROTHERO, Rowland, **3, Cheyne Walk, Chelsea, a. 56; preceded his brother as editor of the "Quarterly" (1894–9), now agent-in-chief to the Duke of Bedford; editor of Byron, Gibbon's Letters, and the Letters of Richard Ford (1797–1858), author of Dean Stanley's Life and editor of his Letters; his latest books are "The Psalms in Human Life" and "The Pleasant Land of France."**

QUILLER-COUCH, A. T., **Fowey, Cornwall, a. 45; novelist, poet, and essayist. Of his later novels, "Hetty Wesley" dealt with the family and sister of the great preacher, and "The Mayor of Troy" returns to the scenes of "Troy Town." "Sir John Constantine" deals with adventures in Corsica; "Major Vigoureux" (1907).**

RALEIGH, Walter, M.A., **Magdalen College, Oxford, Professor of English Literature at Oxford; son of the Rev. Alexander Raleigh, D.D.; contributed a striking volume on Shakespeare to the English Men of Letters series (1907), and has written an essay on Style and monographs on Stevenson, Milton, and Wordsworth.**

RAMSAY, Prof. Sir W. M., **11, College Bounds, Old Aberdeen, a. 57; received the Victorian Research Medal, 1906. Has been working at history and geography in Asia Minor for nearly 30 years, and is the leader of that branch of study. His books include "The Letters to the Seven Churches of Asia," "St. Paul, the Traveller and the Roman Citizen," "Cities of St. Paul," and "Lukan and Pauline Studies" (1908).**

RAMSAY, Sir William, K.C.B., F.R.S., **Prof. of Chemistry at University College, London, 19, Chester Terrace, N.W., a. 56; has distinguished himself by researches into the constituents of the air; in conjunction with Lord Rayleigh he discovered argon. Besides discovering helium, he has also detected in the air the unknown elements to which he has given the Greek names of neon, krypton, and xenon. Awarded the Nobel prize in Chemistry, 1904. Has shown the transformation of the radium emanation into helium, neon, and probably argon, and the possible change of copper into lithium and sodium.**

RANJITSINHJI, Prince (Jam of Nawanagar), **a. 36; at Cambridge developed by assiduous practice the little knowledge of cricket he had brought with him from India; obtained his Blue in 1893; has played for England here and in Australia; first man to score over 3,000 runs in one season; became Jam Sahib in 1907; visited England and again played for Sussex, 1908.**

RAWSON, Admiral Sir Harry, **Governor of New South Wales since 1902, a. 65; was transport officer in Egypt at time of Arabi's rebellion; bombarded Sultan of Zanzibar's palace, 1896; commanded Benin Expedition, 1897.**

RAYLEIGH, Lord, **Terling Pl., Witham, Essex, a. 66; distinguished as a mathematical and experimental physicist; awarded the Nobel prize in Physics, 1904. Received the Order of Merit at the Coronation; retired from presidency Royal Society, November, 1908; Chancellor of Cambridge University.**

REDMOND, John, M.P., **18, Wynnstay Gardens, S.W., a. 58; leader of the reunited Irish Nationalist Party. Was originally a clerk in the House; a fine orator and expert Parliamentarian; declares that "Home Rule is still the be-all and the end-all of the Irish policy and programme." At Nationalist Council in 1907 announced the rejection of Mr. Birrell's Irish Council Bill.**

REED, E. T., **Cardiff House, Wimbledon Common, S.W., a. 48; Parliamentary caricaturist to "Punch" since 1894, in succession to Mr. Harry Furniss; in "Prehistoric Peeps" he struck an entirely new vein of pictorial humour.**

REEVES, Hon. Wm. Pember, **43, Cornwall Gardens, S.W., a. 52; Agent-General for New Zealand, 1896-1905; Principal of London School of Economics, 1908; High Commissioner for New Zealand, 1905–8; was a journalist in the colony, and became Minister of Education and Labour in the Ballance and Seddon Administrations. Has written several books on New Zealand.**

REICH, Dr. Emil, **33, St. Luke's Road, Notting Hill, W., a. 54; a critic of the higher critics, historian, and lecturer; author of "The Foundations of Modern Europe," "Success Among Nations," "General History," and "Woman through the Ages" (1908); Hungarian by birth, and has travelled extensively. Prepared part of the British case with regard to Venezuela boundary.**

REID, Right Hon. G. H., **Union Club, Sydney, a. 63; Leader of the Free Trade Party in New South Wales and ex-Premier in the Federal Parliament.**

REID, Whitelaw, **Dorchester House, Park Lane, W., a. 71; United States Ambassador; has been chief proprietor of the "New York Tribune" since 1872 and its editor when not in the public service; has been war correspondent, cotton planter, and Republican nominee for Vice-Presidency (1892); a polished orator.**

RÉJANE, Gabrielle (Mme. Porel), **a. 51; the leading Paris comedienne; daughter of theatrical box-office keeper; studied at Conservatoire; made début in 1875 in Vaudeville Theatre.**

RESZKE, Jean de, **53, Rue de la Faisanderie, Paris, a. 55; most famous operatic tenor of his time; now directs a school of singing.**

RICHMOND, Sir Wm. B., R.A., **Beavor Lodge, Hammersmith, W., a. 65; succeeded Ruskin as Slade Professor at Oxford;**

entrusted with the interior decoration of St. Paul's; wages incessant war against the smoke nuisance.

RICHTER, Dr. Hans, M.V.O., The Firs, Bowdon, Cheshire, a. 65; conductor of the Halle orchestra, Manchester; has conducted the Wagner performances at Covent Garden since 1877; a native of Hungary; celebrated on May 7th, 1907, the 30th anniversary of his first appearance in London, when the "Times" said of him that he was "by common consent the greatest of all conductors."

RIDGE, W. Pett, Garrick Club; novelist and writer of humorous Cockney sketches; has made a special study of poorer London life; his latest story is "Sixty-Nine Birnam Road," a picture of life in Battersea.

RIDGEWAY, Rt. Hon. Sir West, Athenæum Club, S.W., was Chairman of the Committee which went to South Africa to discuss the Transvaal Constitution. Made G.C.B., 1906. Governor of Ceylon, 1896–1903.

RIDLEY, Viscount, 10, Carlton House Terr., a. 34; Chairman of the Tariff Reform League.

RIPON, Bishop of (W. Boyd Carpenter), The Palace, Ripon, a. 68; a Liverpudlian of Irish and Scotch ancestry; a prelate of broad sympathies and striking eloquence; author of history of English Church and other works; favourite chaplain to the late Queen.

RIPON, Marquis of, 9, Chelsea Embankment, S.W., a. 81; member of several Liberal Cabinets as Secretary for War, India, and Colonies; President of the Council and First Lord of the Admiralty; Viceroy of India 1880–4; became a Roman Catholic 1874; Lord Privy Seal 1905–8; retired from public life October, 1908.

RITCHIE, Anne Thackeray (Lady Ritchie), 109 St. George's Square, S.W.; Thackeray's elder daughter; an accomplished novelist and author of several volumes of reminiscences; has edited the biographical edition of her father's works. Her husband, Sir Richmond Ritchie, K.C.B., is Sec., Political Dept., India Office.

ROBERTS OF KANDAHAR, Earl, V.C., Englemere, Ascot, a. 76; born in India, and joined the Bengal Artillery at the age of 19; went through the Indian Mutiny, serving throughout the siege and capture of Delhi, where he was wounded; went through the relief of Lucknow, the battle of Cawnpore, and other actions; also the Abyssinian expedition of 1867–8, the Lushai expedition of 1871–2; commanded the Kuram Field Force 1878–9; then followed the Afghan War, in which he made the famous march from Kabul to Kandahar, effecting the relief of the latter place; commanded the army in Burmah in the operations of 1886, and in 1900 became Commander-in-Chief in South Africa; he revised the original plan of the war, by which Kimberley and Mafeking were relieved, Pretoria occupied, and the Boers finally subjugated; succeeded Lord Wolseley as Commander-in-Chief of the British Army, 1900. In 1902 he was raised a step in the Peerage, and the House of Commons granted him £100,000 for his services to England. His son was killed at the Tugela River, winning the V.C. On resigning the post of Commander-in-Chief the King, in returning public thanks for his services, said: "I ask all ranks of my Army to profit by the example of his illustrious career, and of his single-minded devotion to his Sovereign and to his country." Believes in universal military training. Is President of the National Service League.

ROBINS, Elizabeth, 31, Dover St., London, W.; made her name first as an actress in Ibsen's plays, secondly as a novelist with "The Open Question" (1898), followed by several fine novels with the Klondyke as background; helped the suffragist cause with a play, "Votes for Women"; her latest book is "Come and Find Me."

ROBINSON, J. B., Dudley House, Park Lane, W., a. 63; S. African born, he became multi-millionaire by buying farms on the Rand before Transvaal gold reefs were discovered; once friend and adviser of Krüger, but quarrelled before the war.

ROBINSON, R. A., J.P., Chairman of the London County Council, 1908–9. For many years closely associated with the local life of Kensington.

ROBSON, Sir Wm. S., K.C., M.P., 26, Eaton Sq., S.W., a. 55; Attorney-General, 1908; one of the best debaters in Parliament, and equally successful in the Courts; Solicitor-General, 1905-8.

ROCKEFELLER, John D., 4, West Fifty-fourth Street, New York, a. 69; reputedly the richest man on earth. Began life as a book-keeper; started an oil factory, absorbed rivals, got control of the oil industry, and created the Standard Oil Trust, one of the greatest financial combinations in existence; its methods and finance were before the courts in 1907, enormous fines were inflicted; generous friend of deserving objects, and a Baptist; said to be worth fifty millions.

RODD, Sir Rennell, British Embassy, Rome, a. 50; appointed to Rome from Stockholm, 1908; has had remarkably varied perience in diplomacy, including special mission to Abyssinia; is a poet of no mean repute.

RODIN, Auguste, 182, Rue de l'Université, Paris, a. 68; President the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers; generally acknowledged to be the greatest of living sculptors.

ROOSEVELT, Colonel Theodore, Oyster Bay, Long Island, a. 50; President of the United States, 1901–9; the most powerful statesman of modern America; son of a merchant prince, educated at Havard, turned to politics when a lad; for some time buried himself in the wild lands of the West, where he won fame as a mighty hunter. Member of Civil Service Commission, 1889, and a noted Civil Service reformer; appointed Commissioner

of New York Police, 1895, and for some time drove corruption from them; became Assistant-Secretary, United States Navy, 1897, and had much to do with making the fleet ready for the Spanish War; on outbreak of fighting he resigned office, raised the "Rough Riders," and led them to the front in Cuba, where they became the most famous American regiment; in 1898 elected Governor of New York State, and in 1900, Vice-President; on the murder of President McKinley, September, 1901, he automatically succeeded him, according to the Constitution. Was elected by an enormous majority in 1904. In August, 1902, he began a bold campaign for the control of the trusts and the railways. To him mainly was due the conclusion of the peace between Japan and Russia. On the conclusion of his Presidency he goes to Africa to hunt big game, and becomes associate editor of the New York "Outlook," at a salary of £6,000.

ROOT, Hon. Elihu, Washington, D.C., a. 64; United States Secretary of State since 1905; was Secretary of War 1899–1904. A man of fine moral character and a brilliant administrator. In 1906 he made a memorable visit to the South American Republics, and in 1907 visited Mexico.

ROSCOE, Sir Henry, E., 10, Bramham Gardens, S.W., a. 76; a member of the famous Liverpool family, and one of the most eminent of living chemists; Vice-Chancellor of London University; a Liberal and ardent educationist.

ROSEBERY, Earl of, 38, Berkeley Sq., W., a. 61; succeeded to the title in 1868; first took office under Mr. Gladstone as Under-Sec. in the Home Dept., 1881, and subsequently was First Commissioner of Works and Foreign Sec.; succeeded to the Premiership in 1894, resigned 1895, and retired from the leadership of the Liberal Party, Oct., 1896. Since then he has been prominent on several important occasions, notably during the Fashoda crisis and the Transvaal negotiations, in both of which he supported Lord Salisbury; has delivered many notable speeches on literary and social subjects; was the first Chairman of the London County Council; is an enthusiast in regard to Imperialist ideals and the future of London, and a devotee of the turf. In 1900 published an interesting study of Napoleon—"The Last Phase." In Dec., 1901, returned for a time to political life, with a speech at Chesterfield, and became President of the Liberal League, and later a vigorous critic of Mr. Chamberlain's policy; is Chancellor of London University. His son, Lord Dalmeny, sits for Midlothian.

ROSSETTI, William Michael, 3, St. Edmund's Terrace, Regent's Park, a. 79; brother of Dante and Christina Rossetti, and member of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood; critic, biographer, and formerly of the Inland Revenue Office; married a daughter of Ford Madox Brown.

ROTHSCHILD, Lord, P.C., G.C.V.O., 148, Piccadilly, a. 68; as head of the house of Rothschild has been connected with the finances of the world for many years; was M.P. 21 years before being raised to British Peerage, in 1885.

ROTHSCHILD, Alfred Charles de, 1, Seamore Place, Mayfair, a. 66; member of the firm of N. M. Rothschild and Sons; formerly a director of Bank of England; well known as a collector of art treasures and pictures; trustee of the National Gallery and the Wallace Collection.

ROTHSCHILD, Hon. Lionel Walter, 148, Piccadilly, a. 41; eldest son of Lord Rothschild; a well-known writer on zoology, and possesses a valuable zoological and entomological museum at Tring; M.P. for Mid. Bucks.

RÜCKER, Sir Arthur William, Everington, near Newbury, Berks, a. 60; Principal of University of London, 1901–08; late Sec. of Royal Society, and President of the British Association.

RUNCIMAN, Rt. Hon. W., M.P., 15, Great College Street, S.W., a. 39; President of Board of Education, 1908; Financial Sec. to the Treasury, 1907. A rising man on the Government bench; he is a Wesleyan Methodist. His father was made a baronet in 1906, and controls the Moor Line of cargo steamships.

RUSSELL, Rt. Hon. G. W. E., 18, Wilton St., S.W., a. 56; grandson of sixth Duke of Bedford; has sat in Parliament; is a lay reader, essayist, and raconteur; a Radical High Churchman; "Collections and Recollections" (1898) and later volumes of similar character are full of Victorian gossip.

RUSSELL, T. W., M.P., Olney, Terenure, co. Dublin, a. 68; a Scot by birth, but an Irishman by adoption; a temperance reformer; did more than any other man in Parliament next to Mr. Wyndham to secure the passing of the Land Bill of 1903; appointed Vice-President Irish Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, 1907; P.C., 1908.

RUSSIA, TSAR of, Nicholas II., a. 40; was called to the throne on the death of his father, Alexander III., November, 1894; his mother, the Empress Dowager, is a sister of Queen Alexandra; he married, three weeks after ascending the throne, a daughter of Princess Alice, Grand Duchess of Hesse. In 1898 he issued his famous Peace Manifesto to the Powers, of which The Hague Tribunal is the outcome. A suggestion for a conference to discuss the controlling of trusts followed in 1902. He has four daughters, and an heir was born in 1904.

ST. ALDWYN, Viscount (Sir M. Hicks Beach), Coln St. Aldwyn's, Fairford, Gloucestershire, a. 72; raised to Peerage, 1906; twice Chief Secretary for Ireland; Colonial Secretary, President of the Board of Trade, and twice Chancellor of the Exchequer; has led the Conservative Party in the Commons; resigned Chancellorship upon Lord Salisbury's retirement from office; condemns financial extravagance, supports Free Trade, but favours

increased indirect taxation for revenue purposes. Was Chairman Ecclesiastical Discipline Commission.

SAINTSBURY, G. E. B., 2, Eton Terrace, Edinburgh, a. 63; an erudite bookman, professor of English Literature at Edinburgh University. Completed in 1904 his history of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe, and in 1908 published the second vol. of history of English Prosody. He says: "I believe I have read nearly all the printed stock of English verse before 1600, and I know that I have read every poet of the slightest repute since that date, and a great number of poets who neither have nor deserve any."

SALEEBY, C. W., 13, Greville Place, N.W., a. 30; one of the most popular writers and speakers on scientific subjects. Had a brilliant university career. Is an M.D. and F.R.S. (Edin.), and a sociologist; championed the Beard ferment treatment for cancer. An omnivorous worker and reader. His father founded the Mount Lebanon Schools; married Mrs. Meynell's daughter.

SALISBURY, The Marquis of, Hatfield, a. 47; son of late Prime Minister; when 16 accompanied his father to the Conference at Constantinople which resulted in the Peace of San Stefano; was also present at "Peace with Honour" Congress at Berlin; fought with distinction in late Boer War. Succeeded Mr. Balfour as Lord Privy Seal, 1903; was President of Board of Trade.

SAMBOURNE, E. Linley, Athenæum Club, S.W., a. 64; educated for the engineering profession, he turned to art, his first drawings in "Punch" appearing in April, 1867; has since been a leading contributor, now chief cartoonist to that paper.

SAMUEL, Rt. Hon. Herbert L., M.P., 88, Gloucester Terrace, W., a. 38; Under-Secretary to the Home Department; earned high praise by his conduct of the Children's Bill, 1908, and won a Privy Councillorship.

SANTLEY, Sir Charles, 67, Carlton Hill, N.W., a. 75; favourite baritone on the operatic stage, and at the Händel festivals. His musical jubilee was celebrated at the Albert Hall, May, 1907. Wrote "Student and Singer" and "The Art of Singing." Knighted 1907.

SANTOS-DUMONT, M., 114, Avenue des Champs Elysées, Paris, a. 35; a Brazilian who gave immense impetus to aerial navigation; won the Deutsch prize; conducted important and successful experiments in the Mediterranean, 1902, and in Paris, 1903. Is still experimenting with aeroplanes.

SARGENT, John Singer, R.A., 31, Tite Street, Chelsea, a. 53; born in Florence of American parents; pupil of Carolus Duran. The most fashionable, as he is the greatest and most daring of living portrait painters; had five pictures in the R.A. 1908; "the sole heir of Velasquez," says Mrs. Meynell; speaks in French, Italian, and Spanish.

SATOW, Sir E. M., a. 65; has had long diplomatic experience in the East; British Minister at Tokio 1895–1900, at Pekin 1900–6; an old Millhillian. A great authority on China and Japan. A British representative at the Hague Conference, 1907.

SAYCE, Prof. A. H., 8, Chalmers Crescent, Edinburgh, a. 62; philologist, antiquary, and excavator in Egypt. Spends many months each year on his Nile boat. Has made great contributions to biblical and ancient history, and to the literature of the monuments. Is an Anglican, and was one of the Old Testament revisers. Published "Creation's Dawn," 1908.

SCHUSTER, Sir Felix, 31, Collingham Road, S.W., and Verdley Place, Fernhurst, Sussex, a. 54; a City banker, and member of the Council of India, a Liberal Imperialist, and governor of the Union of London and Smith's Bank. Is an enthusiastic musician. Says that 30 years' commercial experience has raised his opinion of his fellow-men.

SCOTT, C. P., The Firs, Fallowfield, Manchester, a. 62; governing director (editor since 1872) of the "Manchester Guardian," the best penny morning Liberal paper in the country; is a very forceful instructor of opinion. M.P. 1895–1906.

SCOTT, Captain Robert F., C.V.O., 174, Buckingham Palace Road, a. 40; for his distinguished services to geographical research in command of the Discovery on its Antarctic voyage was promoted to the rank of captain in the Navy; received gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society—"for his sledge journey alone, when he succeeded in getting nearly 300 miles further south than his predecessors, he deserves the honour."

SCOTT, Rear-Admiral Sir Percy, 21, Hans Mansions, S.W., a. 55; second-in-command of the Channel Fleet; his personal relations with his senior, Lord Charles Beresford, led to newspaper controversy, 1907–8; is the inventor of the night signalling apparatus now in use and of other naval appliances.

SEAMAN, Owen, D.Litt., The Tower House, Putney, a. 47; succeeded Sir F. Burnand as editor of "Punch," 1906, of which he was assistant editor. Has a remarkable gift for humorous verse and prose; has been writing for "Punch" since 1891.

SEELY, Lieut.-Col., J. E. B., D.S.O., M.P., 29, Chester Sq., S.W., a. 40; changed parties during the fiscal controversy; now Under-Secretary for the Colonies; served with the Imperial Yeomanry in the South African War.

SELBORNE, Earl of, Government House, Pretoria, a. 49; was First Lord of the Admiralty; sat in the Commons as a Liberal and Liberal-Unionist M.P., and married a daughter of Lord Salisbury; on his accession to the title tried to retain his seat in the Commons. Under-Sec. for Colonies (1895–1900). Succeeded Lord Milner as High Commissioner in South Africa. Advocates South African Federation.

SEYMOUR, Sir E. H., Queen Anne's Mansions, S.W., a. 69; a Radley boy; he has served in many naval engagements in and since the Crimean War; Commander of the China Station during troubles of 1900, when he made a brave effort to relieve Europeans in Pekin; was 1st Naval A.D.C. to the King; ranks very high as a naval strategist; Admiral of the Fleet, 1905.

SHACKLETON, D. J., M.P., 350, Great Western Street, Rusholme, Manchester, a. 46; prominent member of the Labour Party; a good speaker and adroit Parliamentarian. Has been a weaver, began at nine as a half-timer, and is President of the Weavers' Amalgamation; Chairman of the Trade Union Congress, 1909.

SHACKLETON, Lieut. Ernest, Third lieut. on the Discovery under Capt. Scott in the National Antarctic Expedition; in command of the Nimrod, which left England for the Antarctic, via New Zealand, in July, 1907, and expects to be in the Farthest South till April, 1909, utilising a motor-car in his effort to reach the South Pole. The Queen presented him with a flag, and visited his ship with the King.

SHAW, George Bernard, 10, Adelphi Terrace, W.C., a. 52; Fabian Socialist, playwright, novelist, economist, theologian, and journalist-critic; an Irishman, married to an Irishwoman (Miss Payne-Townshend); is counted a brilliantly-perverse paradoxist by those who mistake his cynical exterior. He is the most agile of controversialists, and a thorough-going humanitarian. His plays are as well known on the Continent and in the United States as in London; the latest are "The Doctor's Dilemma" and "Getting Married."

SHAW, Rt. Hon. Thomas, K.C., M.P., 17, Abercromby Place, Edinburgh, a. 58; his article in the "Nineteenth Century," advocating free university education, is said to have suggested to Mr. Carnegie his £2,000,000 gift to the Scotch Universities; Mr. Shaw made the proposal public. A fine speaker and sound Liberal. Lord Advocate for Scotland since 1905.

SHORTER, Clement K., 16, Marlboro' Place, N.W.; left the Civil Service for journalism; was editor of the "Illustrated London News." Has founded successively the "Sketch," "Sphere," and "Tatler"; now edits the "Sphere." Published "The Brontës: Life and Letters," and "Napoleon and His Fellow Travellers." 1908. Mr. Meredith has written an introduction to Mrs. Shorter's "Collected Poems" (1907).

SIDGWICK, Mrs. Henry, Newnham College, Cambridge, a. 63; widow of Henry Sidgwick and sister of Mr. A. J. Balfour; occupies a distinguished position in the world of higher education as principal of Newnham.

SIMS, G. R., 12, Clarence Terrace, Regent's Park, a. 61; is known the world over as author, or part author, of innumerable melodramas and musical plays, and as "Dagonet" of the "Referee"; has written stories, ballads, and sketches of humble London life; recently started an agitation on the miseries of the children of the poor.

SINCLAIR, Rt. Hon. J., 2, Cambridge Sq., W., a. 49; is Secretary for Scotland; formerly C.-B.'s secretary and Liberal Whip; married a daughter of Lord Aberdeen. Had charge of the Scotch Land Bill, 1907.

SMITH, F. E., K.C., M.P., 4, Elm Court, Temple, 70, Eccleston Sq.; a. 36; a Tory M.P. who hit the attention of the House by a witty and audacious maiden speech, and is one of the Party's best speakers. Is a barrister in large practice. He belongs to Birkenhead, and had a brilliant career at Wadham, both in athletics and the schools; took a first class in the final honours School of Jurisprudence, and won the Vinerian Scholarship; was Fellow of Merton and President of the Union, and is the author of several standard works upon international law.

SMITH, George Adam, Rev., M.A., D.D., LL.D., 40, Westbourne Gardens, Glasgow; a. 52; Professor of Old Testament language, literature, and theology, U.F.C. College, Glasgow, since 1892; has travelled extensively in the Holy Land, on the geography of which he is a leading authority; author of "The Life of Henry Drummond" (1898), works on the Prophets and Palestine, which have run into many editions, and "Jerusalem."

SMITH, Goldwin, The Grange, Toronto, a. 85; was Professor of Modern History at Oxford; went to United States in 1868, and to Toronto in 1871; a brilliant historian and trenchant writer on public affairs; a Liberal, a Free Trader, an opponent of militarism and imperial aggrandisement; a master of English style.

SMITH-DORRIEN, Lt.-Gen. Sir H. L., D.S.O., a. 50; Commander-in-Chief at Aldershot; greatly distinguished himself at Doornkop during the Boer War, when he saved the Gordons from being cut off by the enemy; commanded the 4th (Quetta) Division, Indian Army, 1903-7; has seen service in Egypt, the Soudan, and on the Indian frontier; K.C.B. 1907.

SMUTS, Johannes, Pretoria, a. 43; occupied many public offices in the Transvaal before his appointment as Colonial Secretary in General Botha's Ministry; prominent in the conflict with Indian immigrants.

SNOWDEN, Philip, 10, Baron's Court Rd., W., a. 45; M.P. for Blackburn since 1906; journalist, lecturer, and author of many pamphlets on Socialism; Chairman of "Labour Leader" Newspaper Co.; one of the orators of the Socialist movement.

SOLOMON, Sir Richard, K.C.B., Transvaal Office, Victoria St., S.W., a. 58; Agent-General for the Transvaal in London; but for his defeat at the polls by Sir Percy FitzPatrick, would probably have been first Prime Minister of the Transvaal. Formerly acting Lieut.-Governor of the Transvaal.

SOUTHWARK, Bishop of, Bishop's House, Southwark, S.E., a. 65; Dr. Talbot was for ten years Bishop of Rochester before the creation (1905) of his present See.

SPENCER, Earl, 27, St. James's Place, S.W., a. 73; a Liberal Peer; twice Viceroy of Ireland; twice President of the Council; First Lord of the Admiralty, 1892-5.

SPENDER, J. A., 45, Sloane St., S.W., a. 46; a Balliol man, formerly on the "Pall Mall Gazette"; since 1896 editor of the "Westminster Gazette," which he has raised to a great position in London journalism.

SPEYER, Sir Edgar, 46, Grosvenor St., W., a. 46; made a baronet 1906; head of firm of Speyer Bros.; is also an artist, loving pictures, music, and books; Chairman of the Underground Electric Railways Company, and of the Queen's Hall Orchestra.

SPRIGG, Right Hon. Sir J. Gordon, G.C.M.G., P.C., Wynberg, Cape Town, a. 78; spent his early manhood as a reporter in the Gallery of the House of Commons. Settling at the Cape in 1853, he entered the Colonial Parliament in 1869, and in 1878 became Premier and Colonial Secretary, remaining in office till 1881; was again Premier in 1886-1890, 1896-8, and 1900-4.

STANFORD, Sir Charles V., 50, Holland St., Kensington, a. 56; Prof. of Music, Camb. Univ. and R.C.M.; conducts the Leeds Philharmonic Society. His works are contantly in request at festivals and concerts; has conducted the Leeds Festival since 1901.

STANLEY, E. G. V., Lord, 36, Gt. Cumberland Place, W., a. 43; Postmaster-General, 1903-5; heir to the Derby earldom; was chief Press Censor in South Africa during war; has been a Lord of the Treasury; was Financial Secretary to the War Office, 1900-3.

STEAD, Wm. Thos., Mowbray House, Norfolk St., W.C., a. 59; the real founder of the "New Journalism," and its most brilliant representative; edited the "Northern Echo" (1871-80); came to London as assistant editor to John Morley on the "Pall Mall Gazette"; edited it, 1883-89; founded the "Review of Reviews," 1890; has since been occupied with psychical research, incessant journalistic writing, and the Peace Crusade. "Half apostle, half showman, too good a journalist to be a true fanatic, and too true a fanatic to be an entirely good journalist, Stead is a bundle of qualities, of nerves, of volcanic energies," so says T. P. O'Connor. Has just edited Madame Novikoff's "Correspondence and Reminiscences."

STEADMAN, W. C., M.P., 69, Thornton Avenue, Turnham Green, W., a. 57; a barge-builder by trade, and Secretary of the Parliamentary Committee, Trade Union Congress.

STEEL (Mrs.), Flora Annie, Talgarth Hall, Machynlleth, N. Wales, a. 61; more than 20 years in India; began to publish short stories in 1890; her first novel came out in 1893, and "On the Face of the Waters," which made her reputation, was published in 1896.

STEPNEY, Bishop of, 2, Amen Court, E.C., a. 44; the Rt. Rev. Cosmo Gordon Lang, D.D., son of the Principal of Aberdeen University; successively Vicar of St. Mary's Oxford, Vicar of Portsea and Canon of St. Paul's. Fellow of All Souls' Coll., Oxford. Refused the bishopric of Montreal, 1908; his appointment in Nov., 1908 to the Archbishopric of York, created great interest.

STEWART, Charles J., 3, Clement's Inn, Strand, W.C.; Public Trustee, a new office which came into existence Oct., 1907; appointed senior Official Receiver, after the passing of the Companies Winding-up Act in 1890. Had a big task in connection with the Liberator smash; was clerk to the L.C.C., 1896-1900.

STOLYPIN, Peter, St. Petersburg, a. 45; the Tsar's Prime Minister; formerly Minister of the Interior; suppressed the second Duma, and since then has been engaged in stamping out the revolutionary movement. His policy has provoked the keenest controversy; Mr Stead (1908) described him as the equivalent of an English Whig; his life has several times been attempted.

STRACHEY, Sir E., Sutton Court, Somerset, and 27, Cadogan Gardens, S.W., a. 51; represents the Board of Agriculture in the House of Commons. Is Treasurer of H.M. Household. His brother owns and edits the "Spectator."

STRACHEY, John St. Loe, Newlands Corner, Merrow, Guildford, a. 49; editor and proprietor of the "Spectator," which under his editorship retains its unique position, and in 1903-4 by its attitude on the Fiscal Question greatly increased its influence; 1st Class in History, Balliol; barrister-at-law; an uncompromising opponent of Socialism, which he has attacked in a sixpenny volume of letters to a working man.

STRAIGHT, Sir Douglas, 16A, New Cavendish St., W., a. 64; editor of "Pall Mall Gazette" since March, 1896, retiring in the spring of 1909; is a barrister and was an Indian High Court Judge.

STRATHCONA, Lord, 28, Grosvenor Sq., London, a. 89; joined the Hudson Bay Co. at an early age, and acted as special commissioner in Red River Rebellion; became governor of the company and director of Canadian Pacific and other Canadian railways; Chancellor of Aberdeen University and McGill University; and in 1896 became High Commissioner for Canada. Raised Strathcona's Horse for service in South African War; has been a munificent benefactor to Canada. With Lord Mount-Stephen, gave an endowment of £16,000 a year to the King's Hospital Fund: Maintains a wonderful activity.

STRAUSS, Richard, conductor of the Royal Opera House, Berlin, a. 44; the most discussed musician of the day. By some his work is looked upon as "the music of the future," others seeing in it cacophony and noise. Born at Munich, his father being the finest horn-player of the day.

STUBBS, Bishop, Lis Escop, Truro, a. 63; Bishop of Truro, to which he was translated from the Deanery of Ely. Is a Broad Churchman imbued with the social ideals of Kingsley and Maurice. Is a friend of the labourer, and, when a vicar, cut his glebe land up into acre allotments and advocated parish councils. His books deal largely with social Christianity.

SUTRO, Alfred, 31, Chester Terrace, Regent's Park, N.W., a. 45; a popular and successful playwright; his "Walls of Jericho" and "John Glayde's Honour" have had very long runs. Is also the translator of Maeterlinck. His latest (November, 1908) is "The Bridge Builder."

SWAN, John Macallan, R.A., LL.D., 3, Acacia Road, N.W., and Niton, Isle of Wight, a. 60; studied under Gérôme, Bastien-Lepage, Dagnan-Bouveret, and Frémiet; has achieved equal distinction as painter and sculptor, and is our foremost exponent of animal life in art.

SWINBURNE, Algernon Charles, The Pines, Putney, a. 71; greatest of living poets, and an unexcelled master of verbal music; the voluptuousness of his early poems shocked the public taste, but that was long ago; his lyrics, tragedies, and prose criticisms make up a wonderful body of literature; his housemate at Putney is Mr. Theodore Watts-Dunton—"my best and dearest friend." Reviewing his own work in a collected edition, Mr. Swinburne says, when a writer "has nothing to regret and nothing to recant, when he finds nothing that he could wish to conceal, to alter, or to unsay in any page he has ever laid before his readers, he need not seriously be troubled by any consciousness that the work of his early youth is not and cannot be unnaturally unlike the work of a very young man." "If he had done nothing else," says the "Spectator," "his enrichment of the metrical resources of our language would keep his memory green throughout the ages." In 1908 published "The Duke of Gandia," a tragedy; and "The Age of Shakespeare," a volume of critical essays.

TAFT, W. H., Washington, U.S.A., a. 51; U.S.A. Secretary of War, 1904–8; described as "the handy man of the administration"; has been judge, law-professor, a delegate to the Vatican, and Civil Governor of the Philippines; was sent to Cuba to protect American interests, and assumed the position of Governor; visited Japan and the Philippines, 1907. Elected President of the United States, 1908, beating Mr. Bryan by an immense majority.

TALBOT, Maj.-Gen. Hon. Sir R., K.C.B., Gort House, Melbourne, a. 67; went through the Zulu War and Egyptian Campaigns of 1882 and 1884–85; commanded army of occupation, Egypt, 1899 to 1903 appointed Governor of Victoria, 1904.

TEMPEST, Marie Susan (Mrs. C. Cosmo Gordon-Lennox), a. 42; vocalist and actress; "one of the very few English actresses equipped for emotion," says Mr. Max Beerbohm. Her latest success gained in W. S. Maugham's "Mrs. Dot."

TENNYSON, Lord, Farringford, Freshwater, Isle of Wight, a. 56; son of the famous poet, and long acted as his father's private sec.; wrote father's life; Governor of S. Australia, 1889–92; Gov.-Gen. of Commonwealth, 1902–4. Privy Councillor; G.C.M.G.

TERRY, Ellen (Mrs. Carew), Tower Cottage, Winchelsea, a. 60; the most charming and accomplished of English actresses and one who has done most during the last 30 years to endear Shakespearean heroines to English playgoers. Member of a well-known theatrical family, she began her career at eight under Charles Kean, and after many successes with Buckstone at the Haymarket, and afterwards with the Bancrofts and John Hare, appeared in 1878 as Ophelia at the Lyceum to Sir Henry Irving's "Hamlet," and until 1902 played continuously under his management. Since then has appeared for Mr. Beerbohm Tree in "Merry Wives of Windsor," and has produced Ibsen's "Vikings;" played Lady Cicely in G. B. Shaw's "Captain Brassbound's Conversion." Her stage jubilee was celebrated in 1906 with great enthusiasm. Published "The Story of My Life," 1908.

TETRAZZINI, Mme., born in Florence; a great soprano singer who, though famous on the Continent and in South America for years, was unknown in England until 1908, when she took London by storm; has since repeated her triumphs in the United States; her greatest part is Lucia di Lammermoor, which she has sung over 200 times; everywhere acclaimed as the finest soprano since Patti in her prime.

THOMPSON, Sir Edward Maunde, K.C.B., British Museum, a. 68; since 1888 director and principal librarian of the British Museum, which he entered in 1861; has been called to the Bar, edited many works for learned societies, and written works on palæography.

THOMSON, Sir J. J., West Rd., Cambridge, a. 53; Fellow Trinity College, Cambridge; Cavendish Professor of Experimental Physics at Cambridge; was one of those who predicted the behaviour of radium; granted Nobel prize for physics, 1906. President-elect of the British Association; knighted, 1908.

TOGO, Admiral, a. 61; the Nelson of Japan. After Nogi's guns from the land had completed the destruction of the Port Arthur fleet, Togo hid his ships for three months, pending the arrival of the Baltic fleet. Numerically the Russians were his superior, notably in battleships; but in speed, manœuvring, gun-fire, and discipline, the advantage was all with the Japanese. The battle of the Sea of Japan was fought May 27th–28th, when of the Baltic fleet 20 ships were sunk, 6 captured, 2 demolished, and 6 disarmed and interned. Admirals Rojdestvensky and Nebogatoff were captured with some 8,000 men, while 4,000 Russians were killed. The Japanese losses were 3 torpedo boats sunk, 116 men killed, and 538 wounded. Made Count, 1907.

TOLSTOY, Count Leo, Yasnaia Poliana, Russia, a. 80; the greatest of Russian novelists, the prophet of renunciation and absolute obedience to Christian precept; "Anna

Karénina" placed him with the masters of fiction; his later writings have shown him to be the most uncompromising opponent of civilisation and coercive government; he divides his time between writing and labouring on his estate; in 1901 was excommunicated by the Russian Church for unorthodoxy. His 80th birthday, Sept. 12th, 1908, was the occasion of an international celebration; his Life (first 50 years), by Aylmer Maude, published on that day.

TOWNSEND, Meredith, Little Bookham, Surrey, a. 77; joint editor from 1861 to 1899, with the late R. H. Hutton, of the "Spectator," to which he remains a constant contributor; a journalist of fine equipment; author of "Asia and Europe."

TREE, Herbert Beerbohm, His Majesty's Theatre, S.W., a. 55; for ten years manager of the Haymarket Theatre; opened His Majesty's in 1897, which he manages with great distinction; founded in 1904 an Academy of Dramatic Art. "Oliver Twist," "Nero," "Colonel Newcome," "Julius Cæsar," "The Winter's Tale," and "Faust" have been his recent successes. On April 28th, 1907, completed his 10th year at His Majesty's, and his 21st year as theatrical manager with a record of 76 plays.

TREVELYAN, Charles P., M.P., 14, Great College Street, S.W., a. 38; eldest son of Sir George; was a member of the London School Board; appointed (October 1908) Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education.

TREVELYAN, Rt. Hon. Sir George Otto, Wallington, Cambo, Morpeth, and 8, Grosvenor Crescent, S.W., a. 70; distinguished in letters and politics; has held office in several Liberal Cabinets, and was Chief Secretary for Ireland during the stormiest period (1882); is the nephew and biographer of Lord Macaulay; published an enlarged edition of the Life, 1908.

TREVES, Sir Fredk., Bart., G.C.V.O., C.B., LL.D., Thatched House Lodge, Richmond Park, Kingston-on-Thames, a. 56; a distinguished surgeon who has won fame, especially by his abdominal operations; trained at the London Hospital, where he became chief surgeon; specially retained by the Government to go to the Boer War, was with the Ladysmith relief column. Sergt.-Surgeon to the King, and Surgeon in Ordinary to the Prince of Wales; performed operation on the King for appendicitis, June, 1902. Member Advisory Board Army Medical Service. Retired from practice, 1903. Lord Rector of Aberdeen University, 1906–9. Has published several books of travel; "The Cradle of the Deep," 1908.

TURKEY, Sultan of, Abdul Hamid II., a. 66; succeeded to the throne 1876; after a reign of thirty-two years, marked by reactionary despotism (and, as his enemies said, barbarity), astonished the world by conceding a Constitution to the Turkish Empire, July, 1908; has since relinquished some part of his enormous accumulated wealth; his heir is Mehemmed Reshad, who for a quarter of a century was kept a prisoner in his own house, but is now released.

TWAIN, Mark (S. L. Clemens), a. 73; began life as a Mississippi pilot, now the most renowned of American writers; a fine humorist, serious novelist, and essayist; published a book against Christian science; visited Europe in 1907, when he was a recipient of the honorary degree of Litt.D. at Oxford, and had a great reception.

TWEEDMOUTH, Lord, 57, Seymour Street, W., a. 59; filled various offices in the Liberal Ministry, 1892-5, and was First Lord of the Admiralty in C.-B.'s Cabinet; in February, 1908, a sharp controversy was aroused by disclosure that naval matters had formed the subject of friendly correspondence between the Kaiser and the First Lord, who shortly afterwards was made Lord President of the Council; resigned, September, 1908, through breakdown of health.

VANBRUGH, Violet (Mrs. Arthur Bourchier), Garrick Theatre, London; has played in London in Toole's, Irving's, Wyndham's, and Alexander's companies, also with Mrs. Kendal and the Daly company. Now her husband's leading lady.

VANBRUGH, IRENE (Mrs. Dion Boucicault), 4, Wyndham Place, Bryanston Sq., W.C.; an actress who has created several of Pinero's most famous characters, notably Sophie Fullgarney in "The Gay Lord Quex," and Nina in "His House in Order;" her acting in the latter received high praise from Sarah Bernhardt.

VAUGHAN, Father Bernard, Farm St., W., a. 61; an eloquent preacher, and the brother of the late Cardinal-Archbishop; since 1906 has been delivering sermons against the sins of smart society in Farm Street Jesuit Church. The King enjoys his good company.

VEDRENNE, John E., 40, Portman Mansions, W., a. 42; theatrical manager; formerly occupied as vice-consul, concert agent, and company director; has managed Comedy Theatre, St. George's Hall, the German Theatre, Avenue, Court, Savoy, &c.; lessee and joint manager of Court Theatre (with Granville Barker), 1904 to 1908, where the productions have included plays of high literary and artistic value.

WACE, Henry, D.D., Dean of Canterbury, a. 72; has been Chaplain and Preacher of Lincoln's Inn and Principal of King's College, London; edited, with Sir William Smith, the "Dictionary of Christian Biography"; the most powerful controversialist of the Evangelical party.

WALES, George, Prince of, Heir-apparent to the British Throne; born June 3rd, 1865; married (1893) Princess Victoria Mary of Teck; visited Australasia, the Cape, and Canada, 1901; India, 1905-6; Canada, 1908.

WALKLEY, A. B., 36, Tavistock Sq., W.C., a. 53; dramatic critic of the "Times"; the wittiest and most erudite of English critics of the drama, with an exhaustive knowledge of the French theatre; has been for more than 30 years in the Secretary's Office, G.P.O.

WALLACE, Alfred Russel, Old Orchard, Broadstone, Wimborne, a. 86; naturalist and social reformer; formulated the evolution hypothesis simultaneously with Darwin; is keenly interested in land nationalisation, socialism, anti-vaccination, astronomy, and occult phenomena. He has published more than 20 volumes, and in October, 1905, his Autobiography, a wonderful story charmingly told, of which a new and cheaper edition has just been issued. Order of Merit 1908.

WALLACE, Sir Donald Mackenzie, St. Ermin's Mansions, S.W., a. 67; formerly chief of the foreign department of the "Times," and a famous special correspondent; went round the world with the Prince and Princess of Wales, writing the official record; joint editor of the new volumes of the "Encyclopædia Britannica." Published in 1905 a new edition of his "Russia," a work of high value.

WALLER, Lewis, 18, Dorset Square, W., a. 48; an accomplished romantic actor; managed the Haymarket for a season, and became co-lessee of the Shaftesbury, and lessee of the Imperial Theatre; has achieved a high reputation in Shakespearian revivals. Among his greatest successes have been Henry V., Brigadier Gerard, and Monsieur Beaucaire; produced "The Duke's Motto" 1908.

WALSH, Most Rev. William J., Catholic Archbishop of Dublin, and Primate of Ireland, Archbishop's House, Dublin, a. 68; professor and afterwards president of Maynooth College; was influential in the framing of several of the Irish Land Acts; has sat on various Government Commissions, written largely on Irish matters, and been closely identified with the Nationalist movement.

WALTER, Arthur Fraser, Bear Wood, Wokingham, a. 62; was called to the Bar, but has never practised. For many years the control of the "Times" was in his hands. He succeeded the fourth John Walter; the first of that name founded the paper in 1788.

WARD, Colonel Sir E. W. D., K.C.B., K.C.V.O., 5, Wilbraham Place, S.W., a. 55; served in Soudan and Ashanti campaigns; was A.A.G. in Ladysmith during the siege; afterwards Director of Supplies for South African Field Force; in 1901 appointed Permanent Under-Sec. of State for War; President of the Union Jack Club, which was opened in the Waterloo Road in 1907.

WARD, Mrs. Humphry, Stocks House, Tring, a. 57; daughter of Thomas Arnold, and niece of Matthew Arnold; achieved world-wide fame by writing "Robert Elsmere" (1888); and has since written several distinguished novels, the latest (1908) "Diana Mallory"; is intimately associated with the social and educational work of the Passmore Edwards Settlement.

WARD, Hon. Sir Joseph G., K.C.M.G., 122, Tinakori Road, Wellington, N.Z., Premier New Zealand, a. 51; "The part played by him at the Imperial Conference, 1907, showed him to be a staunch and enlightened champion of the cause of imperial unity," says the "Times." Was Mr. Seddon's right-hand man, and successively Minister of Railways, Telegraphs, Industries, and Commerce, Colonial Secretary and Postmaster-General. His views on National Railways are given in this Year Book.

WARE, Fabian, 64, Victoria St., S.W., a. 39; formerly Director of Education in the Transvaal; editor of the "Morning Post" since 1905.

WARWICK, Frances Evelyn, Countess of, Warwick Castle, a. 47; identified with numerous public movements, such as the College at Studley for the agricultural training of women, needlework societies, and technical schools, on her own great estates and elsewhere. Is a Socialist, actively associated with the S.D.F.

WATSON, Wm., 1, The Albany, W., a. 50; has taken rank as one of the most distinguished living poets since the appearance of "Wordsworth's Grave" (1890); is of Yorkshire ancestry, though his earlier life was passed in the neighbourhood of Liverpool, where his father was engaged in commerce. Mr. J. A. Spender arranged an edition of his poems, 1904.

WATTS, Sir Philip, LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.S., 10, Chelsea Embankment, S.W., a. 59; Director of Naval Construction to the Admiralty; for 16 years naval architect to the great Elswick firm of Sir W. G. Armstrong, Whitworth & Co., designing many of the world's most important warships; an ardent volunteer colonel who prepared and sent a battery of Artillery to South Africa, where it did good service during 18 months of the war. The designer of the Dreadnought.

WATTS-DUNTON, Theodore, housemate of Mr. Swinburne at The Pines, Putney Hill, a. 72; distinguished literary critic, poet, and novelist. Has a unique knowledge of gipsy life, which he has used in his novel, "Aylwin," and in his poem "The Coming of Love." Wrote the "Encyclopædia Britannica" treatise on poetry, and many other articles in the ninth edition; for more than 20 years chief critic of the "Athenæum."

WEBB, Sir Aston, R.A., 19, Queen Anne's Gate, S.W., a. 59; designer of the general scheme of the Victoria Memorial in front of Buckingham Palace; architect for completing Victoria and Albert Museum and the Royal College of Science, the Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth. Past president of Royal Institute of British Architects.

WEBB, Sidney, 41, Grosvenor Road, Westminster, a. 49; one of the leading Progressive members of the London County Council, the Senate of London University, and the Fabian Society; Chairman of the London School of Economics; distinguished in economics and

public administration, especially in education and municipal affairs; married Beatrice Potter, in conjunction with whom has produced "History of Trade Unionism," "Industrial Democracy," and other standard treatises on labour questions and social history; now engaged with her on a history of English Local Government, of which the first two parts, on "the Parish and the County" and "the Manor and the Borough," were published 1906-7.

WELLDON, J. E. C., Dean of Manchester, a. 56; Bishop of Calcutta, 1898-1902; a popular headmaster of Harrow, and a leader in social reform; noted for his Greek scholarship, especially in reference to his work on Aristotle; left the Canonry of Westminster for the Deanery of Manchester, 1906; has given a third of Deanery revenue to the unemployed.

WELLMAN, Walter, is the leader of an expedition which left England in May, 1907, with a view to starting later from Spitzbergen for the Polar regions in the airship America. Through unfavourable weather, the aerial voyage had to be postponed.

WELLS, H. G., Sandgate, Kent, a. 42; apprenticed to a draper, then student Royal College of Science, under Huxley, next science tutor; B.Sc. Lond., First Class Honours; articles in the "Pall Mall Gazette" introduced him to journalism; "The Time Machine" (1895) revealed his gift for imaginative fiction; since then has written many novels and romances; latterly has devoted himself to imagining social utopias, forecasting the future in America, and writing popular expositions of Socialism, notably "New Worlds for Old"; his latest romance is "The War in the Air"; published "First and Last Things," an exposition of his belief, 1908; resigned from Fabian Society, 1908.

WESTMINSTER, Archbishop (R.C.) of, Most Rev. Francis Bourne, Archbishop's House, Westminster, S.W., a. 48; born at Clapham, son of a principal clerk in G.P.O.; Pius X.'s first appointment; Domestic Prelate to Pope Leo XIII., 1895; Bishop of Southwark, 1897; translated to Westminster, 1903; made a Cardinal, 1908.

WESTMINSTER, Duke of, Grosvenor House, W., a. 29; head of Grosvenor family; stepson of Mr. George Wyndham; one of the wealthiest of English noblemen-landowners; married Miss Cornwallis-West, 1901. K.G.C.V.O.

WEST, Rt. Hon. Sir Algernon, G.C.B., 14, Manchester Square, W., a. 76; a former secretary to Mr. Gladstone and Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue; a prominent figure in Liberal circles, and a well-known raconteur; published his recollections ten years ago, and lately a volume entitled "One City and Many Men."

WEYMAN, Stanley, Plas Llanrhydd, Ruthin, a. 53; author of "A Gentleman of France" and other historical romances, chiefly of France in the 16th century. With "The Wild Geese" (1908) he has bidden adieu to novel writing.

WHITE, Field-Marshal Sir Geo. S., V.C., Chelsea Hospital, S.W., a. 73; went through the Indian Mutiny and the Afghan War, including the march to Kandahar; after service in Egypt as D.A.Q.G., conducted expedition to Zhob, and became Commr.-in-Chief of India; commanded in N. Natal during early stages of S. African War, and was besieged in Ladysmith, which he gallantly defended till relieved by Buller; late Governor of Gibraltar; was created F.-M. on occasion of the King's visit, April, 1903.

WHITEING, Richard, 13, Regent's Park Terrace, N.W., a. 68; former leader-writer on "Daily News"; his clever satirical novel, "The Island" (1888), was followed by a still more brilliant successor, "No. 5, John Street," in 1899; since then has written "The Yellow Van," "Ring in the New," and (1908) "Little People." Is a Socialist and an interesting personality.

WHITTAKER, The Rt. Hon. Sir T. P., 13, Taviton St., W.C., a. 59; is an M.P., chairman and managing director of an insurance company, and a strong temperance advocate. Was on Lord Peel's Licensing Commission, and is chairman of executive of Temperance Legislation League; untiring champion of the Licensing Bill. Was Chairman of the House of Commons Committee on Sweated Industries, 1907-8.

WHYTE, Rev. Dr. Alexander, 7, Charlotte Sq., Edinburgh, a. 70; one of the most distinguished ministers of the United Free Church—minister of Free St. George's, Edinburgh. Has a unique Bible-class on Sunday evening made up of University and working men. Has done much to expound the mystics and the Puritans, and specially John Bunyan.

WILBERFORCE, Basil, D.D., Archdeacon of Westminster, 20, Dean's Yard, S.W., a. 68; Chaplain of the House of Commons; grandson of the liberator of the slaves, a very effective speaker and enthusiastic temperance reformer.

WILLCOCKS, Sir William, K.C.M.G., a. 57; now engaged by the Turkish Government to supervise the proposed irrigation and canal works in Mesopotamia. This scheme involves an estimated area of some 3,000,000 acres, and an expenditure of £20,000,000, and if carried out will result in the economic re-creation of Ancient Chaldæa. Has done much for Egyptian irrigation.

WILLETT, William, Sloane Square, S.W., builder of fine modern houses; famous as the inventor of the method of saving daylight by altering the clock in April and September, embodied in the Bill of 1908; blessed, but not yet adopted, by Parliament.

WILSON, Sir Guy Fleetwood, Simla, a. 57; an expert in army finance; Financial Adviser to Lord Kitchener in South Africa; appointed in 1908 Finance Member of the Viceroy's Council, India.

WINGATE, Major-Gen. Sir F. R., Cairo, a. 47; saw service with the several Sudan and Nile expeditions, and was chief Intelligence Officer to Lord Kitchener's Staff, his knowledge of Arabic and of desert customs being invaluable to the army in its advance; fought the

remnant of the Khalifa's followers, the Khalifa himself being killed; succeeded Kitchener as Sirdar and Governor-General of Sudan.

WINTERTON, Earl, M.P., 49, Mount Street, Shillinglee Park, Petworth, a. 25; an active member of the Opposition, marked out for office.

WOLSELEY, Viscount, Glynde, Sussex, a. 75; served in Burmah, Crimean War, Indian Mutiny, and China War of 1860; commanded the Red River Expedition (1870); commanded on the Gold Coast during Ashanti War (1873); Governor of Natal, and, later, Cyprus; gave up latter post to command in the South African War of 1879–80. Commanded Egyptian Expedition (1882) and Gordon Relief Expedition (1884). While commanding in Ireland was made Field-Marshal, and Commander-in-Chief after retirement of the Duke of Cambridge (1895); term expired November, 1900. Published (1903) "The Story of a Soldier's Life."

WOLVERHAMPTON, Viscount, Woodthorne, Wolverhampton, a. 78; better known as Sir Henry Fowler, raised to the Peerage in 1908; a lifelong Liberal and an Imperialist; by profession a solicitor; Chancellor of the Duchy, 1905; succeeded Lord Tweedmouth as Lord President of the Council, 1908. His daughter Ellen (Mrs. Felkin) is the author of "Concerning Isabel Carnaby" and other popular novels. His younger daughter, Edith Henrietta, is the author of "A Corner of the West," "The World and Winstow," etc.

WOOD, Field-Marshal Sir Evelyn, Millhurst, Harlow, W., a 71; served in the Crimea, being severely wounded while carrying a scaling ladder; went through Indian Campaign, 1858, and was awarded V.C. for gallant conduct; fought in Ashanti, Kaffir, Zulu, and Transvaal Wars; raised the Egyptian Army, 1882; commanded the Fourth Brigade in Egyptian expedition of 1882; served in Nile Expedition of 1884; 2½ years Sirdar; Quartermaster-General, 1893-1897; Adjutant-General, 1897-1901; commanded 2nd Army Corps District, 1901-05. Published, in 1906, autobiography entitled "From Midshipman to Field-Marshal," and in 1908 his story of the Indian Mutiny.

WOOD, Henry J., 4, Elsworthy Road, N.W., a 39; the most popular English orchestral conductor. Whilst in his teens he was conducting opera with travelling companies, and when only 25 he astonished the musical world by his successful appearance as a concert conductor at the Queen's Hall, and as conductor of the Promenade Concerts has endeared himself to Londoners. Mr. Wood, who is married to a charming Russian lady, well known as a singer, is one of the busiest of men. In addition to his concert work, he teaches singing a good deal, and yet finds time to indulge in painting—a great hobby of his.

WOOD, T. M'Kinnon, M.P., 16, Portland Place, W., a. 53; promoted (October, 1908) from the Board of Education to be Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs; was for many years Leader of the Progressives in the L.C.C., and has been Chairman; an able debater and municipal statesman.

WYNDHAM, Sir Charles, Hyde Park Hotel, S.W., a. 58; famous actor-manager, long lessee of the Criterion Theatre, and proprietor of the handsome building bearing his name in Charing Cross Road; now proprietor and manager of the New Theatre; after fighting in American Civil War, went on the stage.

WYNDHAM, Rt. Hon. George, M.P., 35, Park Lane, W., a. 45; after seeing active service in Coldstream Guards, he began a political career as Mr. Balfour's private secretary; secured a safe seat at Dover, and in 1898 was made Under-Secretary for War; he entered Cabinet, August, 1902. In 1903, as Chief Sec. for Ireland, he succeeded, in face of heavy odds, in getting the Irish Land Purchase Act passed. He resigned, March, 1905. Elected Lord Rector of Glasgow University, 1902, and of Edinburgh, 1908. D.C.L. Lon. and Oxon., L.L.D. Glasgow.

YEATS, W. B., 18, Woburn Buildings, N.W., a. 43; the most distinguished representative of the Irish literary movement, poet, dramatist, mystic; director of the Irish National Theatre, Dublin.

YORK, Archbishop of, *see* Bishop of Stepney.

ZAMENHOF, Dr. Ludwig L., Warsaw, a. 50; doctor of medicine, practising as an oculist at Warsaw, and inventor of Esperanto (1887); took up the study of languages with a view to finding a medium of communication between the races living in his native place (Byalistock), and so lessening the prevalent feuds; does not claim for Esperanto that it is a universal language, in the sense that it can supersede existing tongues.

ZANGWILL, Israel, 3, Hare Court, Temple, E.C., and Far End, East Preston, Sussex, a. 45; once elementary teacher in Spitalfields; he became famous by his stories of the Jews, of which "Children of the Ghetto" is best known. English art and politics are treated in "The Master" and "The Mantle of Elijah"; a play produced in the United States, 1908, called "The Melting Pot" created much interest. President of the Jewish Territorial Organisation; an ardent Zionist and feminist.

THE SEASON'S PLAYS.

The year's production of plays in London was thus tabulated by a writer in the "Daily Mail":

Plays of two or more acts	63
Musical plays	6
One-act plays	35
Pantomimes	3
Revues	1
Ballets	4
Revivals of plays of two or more acts	27
Revivals of musical plays	3

If from the total of sixty-three new plays produced last season we deduct ten French, five American, one German, ten dramatised novels, we are left with a total of thirty-seven plays as the season's offerings of our dramatists. Of these thirty-seven original English plays three were by ladies.

THE LIBERAL MINISTRY.

The Liberal Ministry, of which the Prime Minister is the Rt. Hon. H. H. Asquith, M.P., consists of the following members.

The figures indicate the salaries attached to the offices.

THE CABINET.

Lord High Chancellor (£10,000)	The Lord Loreburn, G.C.M.G.
Lord President of the Council (£2,000)	Viscount Wolverhampton.
Lord Privy Seal (2,000)	The Earl of Crewe.
First Lord of Treasury (£5,000)	Herbert Henry Asquith, K.C.
First Lord of the Admiralty (£4,500)	Reginald McKenna.
Secretaries of State :	
Home Affairs (£5,000)	Herbert John Gladstone.
Foreign Affairs (£5,000)	Sir Edward Grey, Bart.
Colonies (£5,000)	The Earl of Crewe.
War (£5,000)	Richard Burdon Haldane, K.C.
India (£5,000)	Lord Morley.
Chancellor of the Exchequer (£5,000)	Lloyd-George.
Secretary for Scotland (£2,000)	John Sinclair.
Chief Sec. to the Lord-Lieut. of Ireland (£4,425)	Augustine Birrell, K.C.
Postmaster-General (£2,500)	Sydney Buxton.
Presidents of Committees of the Council :	
Board of Trade (£2,000)	Winston Churchill.
Local Government Board (£2,000)	John Burns.
Board of Agriculture (£2,000)	The Earl Carrington, G.C.M.G.
Board of Education (£2,000)	Walter Runciman.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster (£2,000)	Lord Fitzmaurice
First Commissioner of Works (£2,000)	Lewis Vernon Harcourt.

NOT IN THE CABINET.

Parliamentary Under-Secretaries :	
Home Office (£1,500)	Herbert Samuel.
Foreign Office (£1,500)	McKinnon Wood.
War Office (£1,500)	Lord Lucas.
Colonial Office (£1,500)	John Seeley.
India Office (£1,500)	T. R. Buchanan.
Board of Trade (£1,200)	Hudson Ewbanke Kearley.
Local Government Board (£1,200)	C. F. G. Masterman.
Board of Education (£1,200)	Charles Trevelyan.
Financial Secretary of Treasury (£2,000)	Charles Hobhouse.
Patronage Secretary (£2,000)	J. A. Pease.
Junior Lords of the Treasury (each £1,000)	John Herbert Lewis. Cecil William Norton. J. H. Whitley.
Paymaster-General (unpaid)	Richard Knight Causton.
Attorney-General (£7,000 and fees)	Sir W. S. Robson, K.C.
Solicitor-General (£6,000 and fees)	Sir S. T. Evans, K.C.
Lord Advocate, Scotland (£5,000)	Thomas Shaw, K.C.
Solicitor-General, Scotland (£2,000)	Alexander Ure, K.C.
Lord-Lieutenant, Ireland (£20,000)	The Earl of Aberdeen, G.C.M.G.
Lord Chancellor, Ireland (£8,000)	Sir Samuel Walker, Bart.
Attorney-General, Ireland (£5,000)	Richard Robert Cherry, K.C.
Solicitor-General, Ireland (£2,000)	Redmond Barry, K.C.
Admiralty :	
First Sea Lord (£1,500)	Admiral Sir John Fisher, G.C.B., O.M.
Second Sea Lord (£1,200)	Vice-Admiral Sir W. H. May, K.C.B., K.C.V.O.
Third Sea Lord and Comptroller (£1,700)	Rear-Adm. Sir J. R. Jellicoe, K.C.V.O., C.B.
Fourth Sea Lord (£1,200)	Captain E. C. T. Troubridge, C.M.G., M.V.O.
Civil Lord (£1,000)	George Lambert.
Parliamentary and Financial Sec. (£2,000)	T. J. Macnamara.
Army Council :	
First Military Member—Chief of the General Staff (£2,500).	General Sir W. G. Nicholson, G.C.B.
Second Military Member—Adjutant-General (£2,500)	Lieut.-General Sir C. W. H. Douglas, K.C.B.
Third Military Member—Quartermaster-General (£2,000).	Maj.-General Sir H. S. G. Miles, C.V.O., K.C.B.
Fourth Military Member—Master-General of the Ordnance (£2,000)	Maj.-General C. F. Hadden, K.C.B.
Civil Member—Parliamentary Under-Secretary (£1,500)	Lord Lucas.
Finance Member—Financial Sec. (£1,500)	F. D. Acland.

THE PEERAGE.

REVISED BY THE EDITOR OF "DEBRETT."*

A Complete Peerage of the United Kingdom is given in the following pages. Col. 1 gives the titles of Peers; Col. 2, the year of birth; Col. 3, the order of succession to the title. All Peers do not sit in the House of Lords. Those who do not are designated by (O.) against their names. (M.) tells that the Peer is a minor (who, of course, does not sit), (S.) that he is a Scotch Representative Peer, (I.) an Irish Representative Peer, while (R.) denotes a Peeress in her own right, and (L.) a Life Peer.

The House of Lords consists of all Peers (including the Royal Peers) holding creations of England, of Great Britain, or of the United Kingdom, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, 24 of the Bishops, according to seniority of consecration (but always including the Bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester), all Life Peers, certain eldest sons of Peers summoned during the lifetime of their fathers, and 16 Scotch and 28 Irish Representative Peers. Peers who are minors, of unsound mind, or bankrupt, cannot take their seats.

The Royal Peers are—

The Prince of Wales,
Duke of Connaught,
Duke of Albany (Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha).

Peer's Title.	Born	No. of Succn.
Abercorn, Duke of.. Sits as Marquess	1838	2
Abercromby, Baron	1838	4
Aberdare, Baron ..	1851	2
Aberdeen, Earl of .. Sits as Vis. Gordon	1847	7
Abergavenny, M. of	1826	1
Abingdon, Earl of ..	1836	7
Abinger, Baron ..	1872	5
Acton, Baron.. ..	1870	2
Addington, Baron ..	1842	2
Ailesbury, Marq. of	1842	5
Ailsa, Marquess of ..	1847	3
Airedale, Baron ..	1835	1
Airlie, Earl of (M.) ..	1893	7
Albemarle, Earl of..	1858	8
Aldenham, Baron ..	1846	2
Alington, Baron ..	1859	2
Allendale, Baron ..	1860	2
Allerton, Baron ..	1840	1
Althorp, Viscount ..	1857	1
Alverstone, Baron..	1842	1
Amherst, Earl ..	1836	3
Amherst of Hackney, Baron.	1835	1
Ampthill, Baron ..	1869	2
Ancaster, Earl of ..	1830	1
Anglesey, Marq. of..	1885	6
Annaly, Baron ..	1857	3
Annesley, Earl (I.)..	1831	5
Antrim, Earl of (O.)	1851	6
Arbuthnott, Vis. (O.)	1845	11
Ardilaun, Baron ..	1840	1
Argyll, Duke of ..	1845	9
Armitstead, Baron..	1824	1
Armstrong, Baron..	1863	1
Arran, Earl of.. .. Sits as B. Sudley.	1868	6
Arundell of Wardour, Baron.	1859	14
Ashbourne, Baron..	1837	1
Ashbrook, Vis. (O.)	1836	8
Ashburnham, E. of	1840	5
Ashburton, Baron ..	1866	5
Ashcombe, Baron ..	1828	1
Ashton, Baron ..	1842	1
Ashtown, Baron (I.)	1868	3
Athlumney, Baron . Sits as Baron Meredyth.	1865	2
Atholl, Duke of .. Sits as Earl Strange	1840	7
Atkinson, Baron (L.)	1844	–
Auckland, Baron ..	1859	5
Avebury, Baron ..	1834	1
Avonmore, Vis. (O.)	1866	6
Aylesford, Earl of ..	1851	8
Aylmer, Baron (O.)	1842	8
Bagot, Baron	1857	4
Balfour of Burleigh, Baron (S.)	1849	6
Bandon, Earl of (I.)	1850	4
Bangor, Ld. Bp. of	1845	72
Bangor, Viscount (I.)	1828	5
Barnard, Baron ..	1854	9
Barrington, Visct. .. Sits as Baron Shute	1848	9
Barrymore, Baron..	1843	1
Basing, Baron ..	1860	2
Bateman, Baron ..	1856	3
Bath, Marquess of ..	1862	5
Bath and Wells, Ld. Bishop of	1845	70
Bathurst, Earl ..	1864	7
Beauchamp, Earl ..	1872	7
Beaufort, Duke of ..	1847	9
Beaumont, Baroness (M. and R.)	1894	–
Bedford, Duke of ..	1858	11
Belhaven and Stenton, Baron (S.).	1840	10
Bellew, Baron (I.) ..	1855	3
Belmore, Earl of (I.)	1835	4
Belper, Baron.. ..	1840	2
Berkeley, Baroness (R.)	1875	–
Berkeley, Earl of ..	1865	8
Berners, Baroness (R.)	1835	–
Berwick, Baron ..	1877	8
Bessborough, Earl of Sits as B. Ponsonby of Sysonby.	1851	8
Biddulph, Baron ..	1834	1
Birmingham, Lord Bishop of (O.)	1853	1
Blyth, Baron	1841	1
Blythswood, Baron	1839	2
Bolingbroke and St. John, Visct. (M.).	1896	6
Bolton, Baron ..	1845	4
Borthwick, Baron (S.)	1867	17
Boston, Baron ..	1860	6
Boyne, Viscount .. Sits as Baron Brancepeth.	1864	9
Brabourne, Baron ..	1857	2
Bradford, Earl of ..	1845	4
Brassey, Baron ..	1836	1
Braybrooke, Baron	1855	7
Braye, Baron	1849	5
Breadalbane, M. of	1851	1
Bridport, Viscount	1839	2
Bristol, Ld. Bp. of ..	1833	48
Bristol, Marquess of	1863	4
Brougham and Vaux, Baron	1836	3
Brownlow, Earl ..	1844	3
Buccleuch & Queensberry, Duke of Sits as Earl of Doncaster.	1831	6
Buchan, Earl of (O.)	1850	14
Buckinghamshire, E. of	1860	7
Burghclere, Baron..	1846	1
Burnham, Baron ..	1833	1
Burton, Baron ..	1837	1
Bute, Marquess of ..	1881	4
Byron, Baron ..	1855	9
Cadogan, Earl . ..	1840	5
Cairns, Earl	1865	4
Caithness, E. of (O.)	1857	17
Caledon, Earl of (O.)	1885	5
Calthorpe, Baron ..	1829	6
Camden, Marquess .	1872	4
Camoys, Baron ..	1884	5
Camperdown, Earl of	1841	3

* "Debrett's Peerage, Baronetage, etc.," published at 160A, Fleet Street, E.C.

Peer's Title.		No. of Succn
Canterbury, Lord Archbishop of	1848	94
Canterbury, Viscount	1839	4
Carbery, Baron (M. O.)	1892	
Carew, Baron ..	1860	
Carlisle, L. Bp. of (O.)	1817	
Carlisle, Earl of ..	1843	
Carnarvon, Earl of .	1866	
Carnwath, E. of (S.)	1847	
Carrick, Earl of (O.) .	1851	
Carrington, Earl ..	1843	
Carysfort, Earl of Sits as Baron.	1836	
Castlemaine, B. (I.) .	1863	
Castle Stuart, E. of (O.)	1837	
Castletown, Baron ..	1848	
Cathcart, Earl ..	1856	
Cavan, Earl of (O.) .	1865	
Cawdor, Earl	1847	3
Charlemont, Vt. (O.) .	1830	7
Chelmsford, Baron .	1868	3
Chesham, Baron (M.)	1894	4
Chester, Ld. Bp. of .	1845	33
Chesterfield, Earl of	1854	10
Chetwynd, Visct. (O.)	1823	7
Cheylesmore, Baron	1848	3
Chichester, Lord Bishop of (O.)	1841	95
Chichester, Earl of .	1871	6
Cholmondeley, M. of	1858	4
Churchill, Viscount	1864	1
Churston, Baron ..	1846	2
Clancarty, Earl of . Sits as Viscount.	1868	5
Clanmorris, B. (O.) .	1852	5
Clanricarde, M. of .. Sits as B. Somerhill.	1832	2
Clanwilliam, E. of . Sits as Baron.	1873	5
Clarendon, Earl of .	1846	5
Clarina, Baron (O.) .	1837	5
Clifden, Viscount .. Sits as B. Mendip.	1844	6
Clifford of Chudleigh, Baron.	1851	9
Clifton of Leighton Bromswold, Baroness (M. R.)	1900	—
Clinton, Baron ..	1863	
Clonbrock, B. (I.) ..	1834	
Cloncurry, Baron ..	1840	
Clonmell, E. of (O.) .	1877	
Cobham, Viscount .	1842	
Colchester, Baron ..	1842	
Colebrooke, Baron ..	1861	
Coleridge, Baron ..	1851	2
Collins, Baron (L.) .	1842	-
Colville of Culross, Viscount	1854	2
Combermere, V. ..	1837	4
Congleton, Baron (M.)	1890	5
Conyngham, Marq... Sits as B. Minster	1882	5
Cork & Orrery, E. of Sits as Baron Boyle	1831	10
Cottenham, Earl of .	1874	4
Cottesloe, Baron ..	1830	2
Courtney of Penwith, Baron	1832	
Courtown, Earl of . Sits as B. Saltersford.	1823	
Coventry, Earl of ..	1838	
Cowley, Earl	1866	
Cranbrook, Earl of .	1839	
Cranworth, Baron .	1877	
Craven, Earl of ..	1868	
Crawford, Earl of .. Sits as B. Wigan.	1847	
Crawshaw, Baron ..	1853	
Crewe, Earl of . ..	1858	
Crofton, Baron (I.) .	1834	
Cromartie, Countess of (R.)	1878	
Cromer, Earl of ..	1841	
Cross, Viscount ..	1823	
Cumberland and Teviotdale, D. of	1845	
Curzon of Kedleston, Baron (I.)	1859	
Dalhousie, Earl of . Sits as B. Ramsay.	1878	
Darcy de Knayth, Baroness (R.).	1865	
Darnley, E. of (I.) ..	1859	
Dartmouth, Earl of	1851	
Dartrey, Earl of ..	1842	
De Blaquiere, B. (O.)	1856	
Decies, Baron (O.) .	1865	
De Clifford, Baron .	1884	
De Freyne, Baron .	1855	
Delamere, Baron ..	1870	
De la Warr, Earl ..	1869	
De L'Isle and Dudley, Baron.	1853	
De Mauley, Baron	1843	
De Morley, Barony of (Claimant.)	—	
Denbigh, Earl of ..	1859	
Denman, Baron ..	1874	
Deramore, Baron ..	1865	
De Ramsey, Baron .	1848	
Derby, Earl of . ..	1865	
De Ros, Baroness ..	1854	
Derwent, Baron ..	1829	
Desart, Earl of (O.) .	1848	
De Saumarez, Baron	1843	
Desborough, Baron	1855	
De Vesci, Viscount (O)	1881	
Devon, Earl of ..	1870	
Devonshire, Duke of	1868	9
Digby, Baron ..	1846	10
Dillon, Viscount (O.)	1844	17
Donegall, M. of (M.). Sits as B. Fisherwick	1903	6
Doneraile, Visc. (O.)	1866	6
Donoughmore, E. of Sits as Viscount Hutchinson.	1875	6
Dorchester, Bns. (R.)	1846	—
Dormer, Baron ..	1862	13
Downe, Viscount . Sits as B. Dawnay.	1844	8
Downshire, M. of Sits as Earl of Hillsborough.	1871	
Drogheda, E. of (O.)	1884	10
Ducie, Earl of . ..	1827	3
Dudley, Earl of ..	1867	
Dufferin and Ava, Marquess of.	1866	
Dunalley, Baron (I.)	1851	
Dunboyne, B. (I.) ..	1844	
Dundonald, E. of (S.)	1852	
Dunedin, Baron ..	1849	
Dunleath, Baron	1854	
Dunmore, Earl of Sits as Baron.	1871	
Dunraven and Mount-Earl, Earl of. Sits as B. Kenry	1841	
Dunsandle and Clan-Conal, Baron (O.)	1849	
Dunsany, Baron (O.)	1878	18
Durham, Ld. Bp. of	1841	85
Durham, Earl of ..	1855	3
Dynevor, Baron ..	1836	6
Dysart, Earl of (O.)	1859	9
Ebury, Baron.. ..	1834	2
Effingham, Earl of .	1866	4
Egerton of Tatton, Earl	1832	1
Eglinton and Winton, Earl of Sits as E. of Winton.	1848	15
Egmont, Earl of .. Sits as B. Lovel and Holland.		
Eldon, Earl of . ..	1845	3
Elgin and Kincardine, Earl of Sits as B. Elgin.	1849	9
Elibank, Baron (O.) .	1840	10
Ellenborough, B. ..	1841	5
Ellesmere, Earl of .	1847	3
Elphinstone, Baron	1869	16
Ely, L. Bishop of ..	1853	51
Ely, Marquess of .. Sits as B. Loftus.	1851	5
Emly, Baron	1858	2
Enniskillen, E. of .. Sits as B. Grinstead	1845	4
Erne, Earl of .. .. Sits as Baron Fermanagh.	1839	
Erroll, Earl of . .. Sits as B. Kilmarnock.	1852	20
Erskine, Baron ..	1841	
Esher, Viscount ..	1852	
Essex, Earl of.. ..	1857	
Estcourt, Baron ..	1839	
Eversley, Baron ..	1832	
Exeter, Ld. Bp. of .	1853	
Exeter, Marquess of	1876	
Exmouth, Visct. (M.)	1890	
Faber, Baron . ..	1847	
Fairfax, Baron (O.) .	1870	
Falkland, Visct. (S.)	1845	
Falmouth, Viscount	1847	
Farnham, Baron (O.)	1879	
Farquhar, Baron ..	1844	
Farrer of Abingor, Baron	1851	

Peer's Title.	Born
Fauconberg and Conyers, Baroness (R.)	1863
Fermoy, Baron (O.)	1850
Ferrers, Earl .. .	1847
Feversham, Earl of	1829
Ffrench, Baron (O.)	1868
Fife, Duke of .. .	1849
Fingall, Earl of . Sits as Baron.	1859
Fitz-Hardinge, Bar'n	1830
Fitzmaurice, Baron	1846
Fitzwilliam, Earl .	1872
Foley, Baron	1852
Forbes, Baron (O.)..	182[illegible]
Forester, Baron ..	1842
Fortescue, Earl ..	1854
Frankfort de Montmorency, Viscount (O.)	1868
Gage, Viscount .. Sits as Baron.	1854
Gainsborough, Earl of.	1850
Galloway, Earl of .. Sits as B. Stewart of Garlies.	1836
Galway, Viscount .. Sits as B. Monckton.	1844
Gardner, Baron .. (Claimant.)	
Garvagh, Baron (O.)	1852
Gerard, Baron ..	1883
Gifford, Baron ..	1849
Glantawe, Baron ..	1835
Glanusk, Baron ..	1864
Glasgow, Earl of .. Sits as B. Fairlie.	1833
Glenesk, Baron ..	1830
Gloucester, Lord Bishop of (O.)	1848
Gormanston, Visct. Sits as Baron.	1879
Gort, Viscount (O.) .	1886
Goschen, Viscount..	1866
Gosford, Earl of .. Sits as B. Worlingham.	1841
Gough, Viscount ..	1849
Grafton, Duke of ..	1821
Granard, Earl of .. Sits as Baron.	1874
Grantley, Baron ..	1855
Granville, Earl ..	1872
Graves, Baron (O.)..	1847
Gray, Baroness (R.)	1841
Grenfell, Baron ..	1841
Greville, Baron ..	1841
Grey, Earl	1851
Grey de Ruthyn, B.	1858
Grimthorpe, Baron .	1856
Guilford, Earl of ..	1876
Guillamore, Viscount (O.)	1841
Gwydyr, Baron ..	1810
Haddington, Earl of (S.)	1827
Haldon, Baron ..	1869
Halifax, Viscount ..	1839
Halsbury, Earl of ..	1825

Peer's Title.	Born	
Hambleden, Viscountess (R.)	1828	
Hamilton and Brandon, Duke of Sits as Duke of Brandon.	1862	13
Hamilton of Dalzell, Baron	1872	
Hampden, Viscount	1869	
Hampton, Baron ..	1883	
Harberton, Visct.(O.)	1836	
Hardinge, Viscount.	1857	
Hardwicke, Earl of .	1840	
Harewood, Earl of..	1846	
Harlech, Baron ..	1855	
Harrington, Earl of.	1844	
Harris, Baron.. ..	1851	
Harrowby, Earl of..	1864	
Hastings, Baron ..	1882	
Hatherton, Baron ..	1842	
Haversham, Baron .	1835	
Hawarden, Viscount (M. O.)	1890	
Hawke, Baron ..	1860	
Headfort, Marquess of. Sits as B. Kenlis	1878	
Headley, Baron (I.) .	1845	
Hemphill, Baron ..	1873	
Heneage, Baron ..	1840	
Henley, Baron .. Sits as Baron Northington.	1849	
Henniker, Baron .. Sits as B. Hartismere.	1872	
Hereford, Ld. Bp. of	1834	--
Hereford, Viscount .	1843	16
Herries, Baroness (R.)	1877	–
Herschell, Baron ..	1878	2
Hertford, Marquess of	1843	
Heytesbury, Baron	1863	
Hill, Viscount	1863	
Hillingdon, Baron	1855	
Hindlip, Baron	1877	
Holden, Baron	1833	
HolmPatrick, B. .	1886	
Home, Earl of . Sits as B. Douglas.	1834	
Hood, Viscount ..	1868	
Hotham, Baron (O.)	1863	
Hothfield, Baron ..	1844	
Howard de Walden, Baron	1880	
Howard of Glossop, Baron	1859	
Howe, Earl	1861	
Howth, Earl of .. Sits as Baron.	1827	
Huntingdon, Earl of	1868	
Huntingfield, Baron (O.)	1842	
Huntly, Marquess of Sits as B. Meldrum.	1847	
Hylton, Baron ..	1862	
Iddesleigh, Earl of..	1845	
Ilchester, Earl of ..	1874	
Inchiquin, Baron (I.)	1864	
Inverclyde, Baron .	1864	
Iveagh, Viscount ..	1847	

Peer's Title.	Born	No. of Succ.
James of Hereford, Baron	1828	
Jersey, Earl of ..	1845	
Joicey, Baron.. ..	1846	
Kenmare, Earl of .. Sits as Baron.	1860	
Kensington, Baron	1873	
Kenyon, Baron .	1864	
Kesteven, Baron .	1851	
Killanin, Baron ..	186[illegible]	
Kilmaine, Baron (O.)	1878	
Kilmorey, E. of (I.) .	1842	
Kimberley, Earl of .	1848	–
Kingsale, Baron (O.)	1855	33
Kingston, E. of (O.)	1874	9
Kinloss, Baroness (R.)	1852	–
Kinnaird, Baron ..	1847	11
Kinnear, Baron ..	1833	1
Kinnoull, Earl of .. Sits as Baron Hay.	1855	12
Kinross, Baron ..	1870	2
Kintore, Earl of .. Sits as Baron.	1852	9
Kitchener of Khartoum, Viscount	1850	1
Knaresborough, Bn.	1845	1
Knollys, Baron ..	1837	1
Knutsford, Viscount	1825	1
Lamington, Baron..	1860	2
Landaff, Eldm. of (O.) (Claimant).		
Lanesborough, Earl of (O.)	1865	
Langford, Baron (I.)	1848	
Lansdowne, Marq. of	1845	
Lathom, Earl of ..	1864	
Lauderdale, E. of (S.)	1840	
Lawrence, Baron ..	1846	
Leconfield, Baron ..	1872	3
Leeds, Duke of ..	1862	10
Leicester, Earl of ..	1822	2
Leigh, Baron	1855	3
Leinster, D. of .. Sits as Viscount.	1887	6
Leith of Fyvie, Baron	1847	1
Leitrim, Earl of .. Sits as B. Clements.	1879	5
Leven and Melville, Earl of (O.)	1886	14
Lichfield, Ld. Bp. of	1839	92
Lichfield, Earl of ..	1856	3
Lifford, Visct. (O.) .	1837	5
Lilford, Baron ..	1833	5
Limerick, Earl of .. Sits as B. Foxford.	1863	4
Lincoln, Ld. Bp. of .	1829	88
Lindley, Baron ..	1828	1
Lindsay, Earl of (O.)	1832	11
Lindsey, Earl of ..	1861	12
Linlithgow, Mar. of	1887	2
Lisburne, E. of (M.) .	1892	7
Lisle, Baron (O.) ..	1840	6
Lister, Baron	1827	1
Listowel, Earl of .. Sits as Baron Hare.	1833	3
Liverpool, Earl of ..	1870	2
Liverpool, Ld. Bp. of	1846	2
Llandaff, Ld. Bp. of (O.)	18—	94

Peer's Title.	Born	No. of Succn.
Llandaff, Viscount ..	1826	1
Llangattock, Baron .	1837	1
Loch, Baron	1873	2
Lochee of Gowrie, B.	1845	1
Londesborough, E. of	1864	2
London, Ld. Bp. of .	1858	110
Londonderry, Mar. of Sits as Earl Vane.	1852	6
Longford, Earl of .. Sits as Baron Silchester.	1864	
Lonsdale, Earl of ..	1857	
Loreburn, Baron ..	1846	1
Loth[illegible], Marquess of [illegible] Baron Ker.	1874	10
Loudoun, Earl of .. Sits as B. Botreaux.	1855	
Louth, Baron (O.) ..	1868	14
Lovat, Baron.. ..	1871	14
Lovelace, Earl of ..	1865	3
Lucan, Earl of (I.) ..	1830	4
Lucas of Crudwell, B.	1876	8
Ludlow, Baron ..	1865	2
Lurgan, Baron ..	1858	3
Lytton, Earl of ..	1876	2
Lyveden, Baron ..	1857	3
Macclesfield, E. of (M.)	1888	7
Macdonald, Bn. (O.)	1853	6
Macdonald of Earnscliffe, Baroness (R.)	1836	—
Macdonnell, Baron	1844	1
Macnaghten, B. (L.)	1830	—
Magheramorne, Bn..	1863	
Malmesbu[illegible], E. of..	1872	
Manchester, Lord Bishop of	1847	
Manchester, Duke of	1877	
Manners, Baron ..	1852	
Mansfield and Mansfield, Earl of	1864	
Manvers, Earl ..	1854	
Mar, Earl of (S.) ..	1836	
Mar and Kellie, E. of (S.)	1865	
Marchamley, Baron	1855	
Marlborough, D. of	1871	
Masham, Baron ..	1857	
Massereene and Ferrard, Viscount Sits as Baron Oriel	1873	
Massy, Baron (I.) ..	1835	
Mayo, Earl of (I.) ..	1851	
Meath, Earl of .. Sits as B. Chaworth	1841	
Melville, Viscount ..	1843	
Methuen, Baron ..	1845	
Mexborough, E. of (O.)	1843	
Michelham, Baron..	1851	
Middleton, Baron ..	1844	
Midleton, Viscount . Sits as B. Brodrick.	1856	
Milltown, Earl of (O.) (Claimant.)		
Milner, Viscount ..	1854	
Minto, Earl of ..	1845	
Molesworth, Vis. (O.)	1867	
Monck, Viscount .. Sits as Baron.	1849	
Moncreiff, Baron	1840	2
Monk Bretton, Bn. .	1869	2
Monkswell, Baron ..	1845	2
Monson, Baron ..	1868	9
Montagu of Beaulieu, Baron	1866	2
Monteagle, Baron ..	1849	2
Montrose, Duke of.. Sits as E. Graham.	1852	5
Moray, Earl of .. Sits as B. Stuart of Castle Stuart.	1842	16
Morley, Earl of ..	1877	4
Morley of Blackburn, Viscount	1838	1
Morton, Earl of (S.)	1844	21
Mostyn, Baron ..	1856	3
Mount Cashell, E. (O.)	1829	6
Mount Edgcumbe, Earl of	1832	4
Mountgarret, Vt. (O.)	1844	14
Mountmorres, Vt. (O.)	1872	6
Mount Stephen, Bn.	1829	1
Mowbray, Segrave, and Stourton, Bn.	1867	24
Muncaster, Baron ..	1834	5
Munster, Earl of ..	1862	4
Muskerry, Bn. (I.) ..	1854	4
Napier and Ettrick, B.	1846	11
Napie[illegible] of Magdala, B.		2
Nelso[illegible] Earl		3
Newborough, B. (O.)	1873	4
Newburgh, E. of (O.)	1862	9
Newcastle, Ld. Bp. of (O.)	1840	4
Newcastle, Duke of.	1864	7
Newlands, Baron ..	1851	2
Newton, Baron ..	1857	2
Norbury, E. of (O.)..	1862	4
Norfolk, Duke of ..	1847	15
Normanby, M. of ..	1846	3
Normanton, Earl of	1865	4
North, Baron ..	1836	11
Northampton, M. of	1851	5
Norhtbourne, B. ..	1846	2
Northbrook, Earl of	1850	2
Northcliffe, Baron .	1865	1
Northcote, Baron ..	1846	1
Northesk, E. of (S.) .	1865	10
Northumberland, D. of	1846	7
Norton, Baron ..	1846	2
Norwich, Ld. Bp. of	1834	89
Nunburnholme, Bn.	1875	2
O'Brien, Baron ..	1842	1
O'Hagan, Baron ..	1882	3
O'Neill, Baron ..	1839	2
Onslow, Earl of ..	1853	4
Oranmore & Browne, Baron (I.)	1861	3
Orford, Earl of ..	1854	5
Orkney, Earl of (O.).	1867	7
Ormathwaite, Bn..	1827	2
Ormonde, Marq. of . Sits as Baron.	1844	3
Oxford, Lord Bp. of	1851	33
Peckover, Baron ..	1830	1
Peel, Viscount ..	1829	1
Pembroke & Montgomery, Earl of	1853	14
Penrhyn, Baron ..	1864	3
Perth, Earl of (O.) .. (Vis. Strathallan).	1871	15
Peterborough, Lord Bishop of	1843	28
Petre, Baron	1864	15
Pirrie, Baron	1847	1
Playfair, Baron ..	1849	2
Plunket, Baron ..	1864	5
Plymouth, Earl of..	1857	1
Poltimore, Baron ..	1859	3
Polwarth, Baron (O.)	1838	6
Portarlington, E. of.	1883	6
Portland, Duke of..	1857	6
Portman, Viscount .	1829	2
Portsmouth, Earl of	1856	6
Poulett, Earl of ..	1883	7
Powerscourt, Visct.. Sits as Baron.	1880	8
Powis, Earl of ..	1862	4
Queensberry, M. of (O.)	1868	9
Radnor, Earl of ..	1868	6
Radstock, Baron (O.)	1833	3
Raglan, Baron ..	1857	3
Ranfurly, Earl of .. Sits as Baron.	1856	5
Rathdonnell, Bn. (I.)	1848	2
Rathmore, Baron ..	1838	1
Ravensworth, Baron	1837	5
Rayleigh, Baron ..	1842	3
Reay, Baron	1839	11
Redesdale, Baron ..	1837	1
Rendel, Baron ..	1834	1
Rendelsham, Bn. (O.)	1840	5
Revelstoke, Baron..	1863	2
Ribblesdale, Baron .	1854	4
Richmond, Lennox, & Gordon, Duke of	1845	7
Ridley, Viscount ..	1874	2
Ripon, Lord Bp. of .	1841	3
Ripon, Marquess of.	1827	1
Ritchie of Dundee, B.	1866	2
Roberts, Earl ..	1832	1
Robertson, Bn. (L.) .	1845	—
Rochester, Lord Bp. of	1857	101
Roden, Earl of (O.)..	1842	6
Rodney, Baron ..	1857	7
Rollo, Baron	1835	10
Romilly, Baron (M.).	1899	4
Romney, Earl of ..	1864	5
Rosebery, Earl of ..	1847	5
Rosmead, Baron ..	1866	2
Rosse, Earl of (O.) ..	1873	5
Rosslyn, Earl of ..	1869	5
Rossmore, Baron ..	1853	5
Rothes, Earl of (S.) .	1877	19
Rothschild, Baron..	1840	1
Roxburghe, Duke of	1876	8
Russell, Earl	1865	2
Ruthven, Baron (O.)	1838	8
Rutland, Duke of ..	1852	8
Sackville, Barony of (Claimants)	—	—
St. Albans, Duke of.	1870	11
St. Albans, Ld. Bp. of	1844	3
St. Aldwyn, Visct...	1837	1
St. Asaph, Ld. Bp. of	1848	*71
St. Davids, Baron..	1860	1
St. Davids, Ld. Bp. of	1854	119
St. Germans, Earl of	1835	5
St. John of Bletso, B.	1844	15

Peer's Title.	
St. Leonards, B. (M.)	1890
St. Levan, Baron ..	1857
St. Oswald, Baron ..	1857
St. Vincent, Viscount	1859
Salisbury, Ld. Bp. of	1843
Salisbury, Marq. of .	1861
Saltoun, Baron (s.) .	1851
Sanderson, Baron .	1841
Sandhurst, Baron ..	1855
Sandwich, Earl of ..	1839
Sandys, Baron ..	1855
Savile, Baron	1854
Saye and Sele, Bar. .	1858
Scarbrough, Earl of .	1857
Scarsdale, Baron ..	1831
Seafield, Earl of ..	1876
Seaton, Baron ..	1854
Sefton, Earl of Sits as Baron.	1871
Selborne, Earl of	1859
Selby, Viscount ..	1835
Sempill, Baron (o.) .	1863
Shaftesbury, Earl of	1869
Shannon, Earl of (M.) Sits as B. Carleton.	1897
Sheffield, Earl of . Sits as Baron. ..	1832
Sherard, Baron (o.) .	1851
Sherborne, Baron ..	1831
Shrewsbury and Talbot, Earl of.	1860
Shuttleworth, Baron	1844
Sidmouth, Viscount	1824
Sinclair, Baron (s.) .	1831
Sligo, Marquess of .. Sits as Baron Monteagle.	1831
Sodor and Man, Lord Bishop of (o.)	1847
Somers, Baron .	1887
Somerset, Duke of.	1846
Sondes, Earl .. .	1866
Southampton, Bar.	1867
Southesk, Earl of .. Sits as B. Balinhard.	1854
Southwark, L. B. of.	1844
Southwell, Lord Bp. of	1851
Southwell, Vis. (o.) .	1872
Spencer, Earl.. ..	1835
Stafford, Baron ..	1833

Peer's Title.		
Stair, Earl of .. .. Sits as B. Oxenfoord.	1848	11
Stalbridge, Baron ..	1837	
Stamford, Earl of ..	1850	
Stanhope, Earl ..	1880	
Stanley of Alderley, Baron	1839	
Stanmore, Baron ..	1829	
Stradbroke, Earl of	1862	
Strafford, Earl of ..	1835	
Strathcona and Mount Royal, Bn.	1820	
Stratheden and Campbell, Baron	1829	
Strathmore and Kinghorne, E. of Sits as B. Bowes.		14
Sudeley, Baron ..	1840	4
Suffield, Baron ..	1830	5
Suffolk and Berkshire, Earl of	1877	19
Sutherland, D. of ..	1851	4
Swansea, Baron ..	1848	2
Swaythling, Baron .	1832	1
Taaffe, Viscount (o.)	1872	12
Talbot de Malahide, Baron	1846	5
Tankerville, Earl of	1852	7
Teignmouth, Bn. (o.)	1840	3
Temple, Earl	1871	5
Templemore, Baron	1854	3
Templetown, Vis. (I.)	1853	4
Tennyson, Baron ..	1852	2
Tenterden, Baron ..	1865	4
Teynham, Baron ..	1867	18
Thurlow, Baron ..	1838	5
Tollemache, Baron .	1883	3
Torphichen, Bn. (s.)	1846	12
Torrington, Visct. ..	1886	9
Townshend, Marq...	1866	6
Tredegar, Viscount .	1831	1
Trevor, Baron ..	1852	2
Trimlestown, Baron (o.)	1861	18
Truro, Ld. Bp. of (o.)	1845	4
Tweeddale, Marq. of Sits as Baron.	1826	10
Tweedmouth, Baron	1849	
Valentia, Visct. (o.).	184	

Peer's Title.		
Vaux of Harrowden, Baron	1860	
Ventry, Baron (I.) ..	1828	4
Vernon, Baron (M.) .	1888	8
Verulam, Earl of ..	1852	3
Vivian, Baron ..	1878	4
Wakefield, Lord Bp. of	1853	2
Waldegrave, Earl ..	1851	9
Waleran, Baron ..	1849	1
Wallscourt, Bn. (o.)	1841	4
Walsingham, Baron	1843	6
Wandsworth, Baron	1845	1
Warwick, Earl Brooke and of	1853	5
Waterford, Marq. of Sits as B. Tyrone.	18[illegible]	6
Waterpark, Bn. (o.).	1839	4
Weardale, Baron ..	1847	1
Welby, Baron ..	1832	1
Wellington, Duke of	1849	4
Wemyss and March, Earl of Sits as B. Wemyss.	1818	8
Wenlock, Baron ..	1849	3
Wentworth, B'ness (R.)	1871	
Westbury, Baron ..	1852	3
Westmeath, E. of (I.)	1870	11
Westminster, D. of	1879	2
Westmorland, E. of	1859	13
Wharncliffe, Earl of	1856	2
Wicklow, Earl of (I.)	1877	7
Willoughby de Broke, Baron	1869	19
Wilton, Earl of ..	1863	5
Wimborne, Baron ..	1835	1
Winchester, Ld. Bp. of	1856	87
Winchester, Marq. of	1862	16
Winchilsea and Nottingham, Earl of.	1852	13
Winterstoke, Baron.	1830	1
Winterton, Earl (o.).	1883	6
Wolseley, Viscount .	1833	1
Wolverhampton, B.	1830	1
Wolverton, Baron ..	1864	4
Worcester, Lord Bp. of (o.)	1845	105
Wrottesley, Baron..	1824	3
Wynford, Baron ..	1871	6
Yarborough, Earl of	1859	4
York, Archbishop of	1864	89
Zetland, Marquess of	1844	1
Zouche, Baron ..	1851	15

OFFICERS OF ROYAL HOUSEHOLD.

Lord Chamberlain (£2,000)	The Viscount Althorp, P.C.
Vice-Chamberlain (£924)	J. M. F. Fuller, Esq., M.P.
Lords-in-Waiting (each £702)	The Lord Acton, M.V.O. The Lord Colebrooke, C.V.O. The Earl Granville, M.V.O. The Lord Hamilton of Dalzell, C.V.O. The Lord Herschell, M.V.O. The Lord O'Hagan. The Lord Suffield, P.C., G.C.V.O., K.C.B.
Lord Steward (£2,000)	Earl Beauchamp, P.C., K.C.M.G.
Treasurer (£904)	Sir Edward Strachey, Bart., M.P.
Comptroller (£904)..	The Master of Elibank, M.P.
Master of the Horse (£2,500)	The Earl of Granard, P.C.
Captain of the Gentlemen-at-Arms (£1,200)	The Lord Denman, P.C.
Captain of the Yeomen of the Guard (£1,200)	The Lord Allendale, P.C.

MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT.

A complete alphabetical list of the present House of Commons will be found in the following pages, together with the constituency represented by each member. The figures attached to each name indicate the member's majority over his opponent if he represents a single-member constituency. In two-member constituencies the majority over the nearest party opponent is given. Where there was no contest the letters UNOP. are placed. The member's party is represented thus: C = Conservative; L = Liberal; Lab = Labour; N = Irish member, or Nationalist. The House of Commons consists of 670 members. There are 7,514,481 voters in the United Kingdom; 6,058,894 in England and Wales; 762,861 in Scotland; and 692,726 in Ireland.

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Abraham, W. ..	Lab	Rhondda ..	unop
Abraham, W. ..	N	Cork, N.E. ..	unop
Acland, F. D. ..	L	Richmond, Yks.	108
Adkins, W. R. ..	L	Middleton ..	1533
Agnew, G. W. ..	L	Salford, W. ..	2210
Ainsworth, J. S. ..	L	Argyllshire ..	1495
Alden, P.	L	Tottenham ..	2950
Allen, A. A.	L	Christchurch ..	567
Allen, C. P.	L	Stroud	1180
Ambrose, Dr. R. ..	N	Mayo, W. ..	unop
Anson, Sir W. R., Bart.	C	Oxford Univ. ..	unop
Anstruther-Gray, Major W.	C	St. Andrews Burghs	23
Arkwright, J. S. ..	C	Hereford ..	242
Armitage, R. ..	L	Leeds, Central	1069
Armstrong, W. C. Heaton-	L	Sudbury.. ..	136
Ashley, W. W. ..	C	Blackpool ..	3053
Ashton, T. G. ..	L	Luton	1853
Asquith, Rt. Hon. H. H.	L	Fife, E.	1444
Astbury, J. M. ..	L	Southport ..	240
Baker, Sir J... ..	L	Portsmouth ..	2064
Baker, J. A... ..	L	Finsbury, E. ..	689
Balcarres, Lord ..	C	Chorley	1387
Baldwin, S.	C	Bewdley.. ..	unop
Balfour, A. J. ..	C	City	11340
Balfour, R.	L	Partick	1517
Banbury, Sir F. ..	C	City	unop
Banner, J. S. Harmood-	C	Everton	1065
Baring, G.	L	Wight, I. of ..	1561
Baring, Hon. G. V.	C	Winchester ..	50
Barker, Sir J., Bt.	L	Penryn & Flmth	97
Barlow, Sir J. E. ..	L	Frome	1745
Barlow, Sir P. ..	L	Bedford	493
Barnard, E. B. ..	L	Kidderminster	271
Barnes, G. N. ..	Lab	Blackfrs, Glas.	310
Barran, R. H. ..	L	Leeds, N. ..	2485
Barratt, Sir F. Layland-	L	Torquay.. ..	460
Barrie, H. T. ..	C	Derry, N. ..	2107
Barry, E.	N	Cork, S.	unop
Barry, Redmond, K.C.	N	N. Tyrone ..	7
Beach, Hon. M. H. Hicks-	C	Tewkesbury ..	127
Beale, W. P... ..	L	Ayrshire, S ..	1242
Beauchamp, E. ..	L	Lowestoft ..	1605
Beaumont, Hon. H.	L	Eastbourne ..	630
Beck, A. C.	L	Wisbech ..	1045
Beckett, Hon. G.	C	Whitby	71
Bell, Capt. Morrison	C	Ashburton ..	559
Bell, Richard ..	Lab	Derby	3940

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Bellairs, Lieut. C., R.N.	L	King's Lynn ..	342
Belloc, H.	L	Salford, S. ..	852
Benn, Sir J. W. ..	L	Devonport ..	1288
Benn, W. W. ..	L	St. George T.H.	621
Bennett, E. N. ..	L	Woodstock ..	441
Berridge, T. H. D.	L	Warwick & L.	209
Bertram, J.	L	Hitchin	76
Bethell, T. R. ..	L	Maldon	149
Bethell, Sir J. H.	L	Romford ..	8885
Bignold, Sir A. ..	C	Wick Burghs	96
Birrell, Rt. Hon. A.	L	Bristol, N. ..	2942
Black, Arthur W.	L	Biggleswade ..	2604
Boland, J. P. ..	N	Kerry, S. ..	unop
Bottomley, H. W.	L	Hackney, S. ..	3479
Boulton, A. C. F...	L	Ramsey	381
Bowerman, C. W.	Lab	Deptford ..	1259
Bowles, G. S. ..	C	Norwood ..	819
Boyle, Sir E. Bart.	C	Taunton ..	339
Brace, W.	Lab	Glamorgnshire., S.	4418
Bramsdon, T. A. ..	L	Portsmouth ..	2328
Branch, J.	L	Enfield	2116
Bridgeman, W. C.	C	Oswestry ..	503
Bright, J. A... ..	L	Oldham	4683
Brigg, J.	L	Keighley ..	2093
Broadley, Col. H. B. Harrison	C	Howdenshire	603
Brocklehurst, Col. W. B.	L	Macclesfield ..	494
Brodie, H. C. ..	L	Reigate	219
Brooke, G. S. ..	L	Bow & Bromley	622
Brotherton, E. A.	C	Wakefield ..	217
Brunner, Sir J. T. Bart.	L	Northwich ..	1792
Brunner, J. F. L. ..	L	Leigh	2006
Bryce, J. A... ..	L	Inverness Dist.	558
Buchanan, T. R. ..	L	Perthshire, E.	1090
Buckmaster, S. O.	L	Cambridge ..	308
Bull, Sir W. J. ..	C	Hammersmith	549
Burdett-Coutts, W. L.	C	Westminster ..	1113
Burke, E. H. ..	N	Tullamore ..	unop
Burns, Rt. Hon. J.	L	Battersea ..	1600
Burnyeat, W. J. D.	L	Whitehaven ..	313
Burt, Rt. Hon. T.	Lab	Morpeth.. ..	3590
Butcher, S. H. ..	C	Cambridge University	1397
Buxton, Rt. Hon. S	L	Poplar	2311
Byles, W. P... ..	L	Salford, N. ..	1187
Caldwell, J.	L	Lanarksh. Mid	2776
Cameron, R... ..	L	Hogtn-le-Sprng	5790
Campbell, Rt. Hon. J. H. M.	C	Dublin Univ.	unop
Carlile, Col. E. H.	C	St. Albans ..	552

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.*	Maj.
Carson, Rt. Hon. Sir E.		Dublin Univ.	unop
Castlereagh, Visct.		Maidstone ..	132
Causton, Rt. Hon. R. K.		Southwark, W.	465
Cave, G., K.C. ..		Kingston ..	1019
Cawley, Sir F., Bart		Prestwich ..	4163
Cecil, E.		Aston Manor ..	4703
Cecil, Lord Robert		Marylebone, E.	660
Cecil, Lord J. Joicey-		Stamford ..	541
Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. A.		Worcestersh., E.	4366
Chamberlain, Rt. Hon. J.		Birmingham, W	5079
Chance, F. W. ..		Carlisle	unop
Channing, Sir F. A.		Northants, E.	3603
Chaplin, Rt. Hon. H.		Wimbledon ..	6964
Cheetham, J. F. ..		Stalybridge ..	454
Cherry, Rt. Hon. R. R.		Exchge., Lpool.	121
Churchill, Rt. Hon. W. S.		Dundee	2709
Clancy, J. J... ..	N	Dublin	unop
Clark, G. C.	C	Belfast	1827
Cleland, J. W. ..	L	Bridgton, Glas.	
Clive, Capt. P. A ..	C	Ross	1019
Clough, W.	L	Skipton	
Clynes, J. R. ..	Lab	Mnchstr., N.E.	2432
Coates, Major E. F.	C	Lewisham ..	1683
Coats, Sir T. G. Glen-, Bart.	L	Renfrewsh., W.	1368
Cobbold, F. T.	L	Ipswich	1699
Cochrane, Hon. T. H. A. E.	C	Ayrshire, N. ..	1016
Collings, Rt. Hon. J	C	Bordesley	3787
Collins, S.	L	Kennington	1585
Collins, Sir W. J.	L	St. Pancras, W.	685
Condon, T. J. ..	N	Tipperary, E.	unop
Cooper, Dr. G. J. ..	L	Bermondsey ..	1759
Corbett, A. C. ..	C	Tradstn., Glas.	353
Corbett, C. H. ..	L	E. Grinstead ..	262
Corbett, T. L. ..	C	Down, N. ..	2275
Cornwall, Sir E. A.	L	Bethnl G. N.E.	1997
Cory, Sir C. J., Bt.	L	St. Ives	1192
Cotton, Sir H. J. S.		Nottingham, E.	1730
Courthope, G. L. ..		Rye..	1158
Cowan, W. H. ..		Guildford ..	800
Cox, H.	L	Preston	1235
Craig, C. C.	C	Antrim, S. ..	unop
Craig, H. J	L	Tynemouth ..	761
Craig, Capt. J.	C	Down, E. ..	670
Craik, Sir H., K.C.B.	C	Glasgow and Abdeen Univs.	1093
Crean, E.	N	Cork, S.E.	unop
Crooks, William ..	Lab	Woolwich	2143
Crosfield, A. H. ..	L	Warrington	1500
Cross, A.	C	Camlachie, Glas.	248
Crossley, W. J. ..	L	Altrincham	2691
Cullinan, J.	N	Tipperary, S...	unop
Curran, Pete.. ..	Lab	Jarrow	768
Dalmeny, Lord ..	L	Edinburghshire	3217
Dalrymple, Viscnt.	C	Wigton	739
Dalziel, Sir J. H...	L	Kirkcaldy Dist.	3249
Davies, D.	L	Montgomerysh	unop
Davies, E. W. ..	L	Eifion, Car. ..	unop
Davies, M. V. ..	L	Cardigan ..	2869
Davies, T.	L	Fulham	630
Davies, T. Hart- .	L	Hackney, N. ..	224
Davies, Sir W. H.	L	Bristol, S. ..	2692

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Delany, W.	N	Ossory	unop
Devlin, J.	N	Belfast, W. ..	16
Dewar, A., K.C. ..	L	Edinburgh, S.	2960
Dewar, Sir J. A., Bart.	L	Inverness-shire	2108
Dickinson, W. H. .	L	St. Pancras, N.	1451
Dickson-Poynder, Sir J. P., Bart.	L	Chippenham .	1966
Dilke, Rt. Hon. Sir C. W., Bart.	L	Forest of Dean	
Dillon, J.	N	Mayo, E.	unop
Dobson, T. W. ..	L	Plymouth ..	2474
Donelan, Capt. A. J.	N	Cork, E. ..	unop
Douglas, Rt. Hon. A. Akers-	C	S. Augustine's	2861
Doughty, Sir G. .		Great Grimsby	2309
Duckworth, Sir J.		Stockport	1953
Du Cros, A.		Hastings	1618
Duffy, W. J. . ..		Galway, S.	
Duncan, C.		B'row-in-F'ness	1772
Duncan, J. H. ..		Otley	1649
Duncan, R.		Govan	128
Dunn, A. E. . ..		Camborne ..	2230
Dunne, Maj. E. M.		Walsall	3195
Edwards, A. C. ..		Denbigh Dist.	573
Edwards, E. ..		Hanley .. .	4896
Edwards, Sir F., Bt.		Radnorshire	175
Elibank, Master of .		Peebls.&Slkirk.	406
Ellis, Rt. Hon. J. E.		Rushcliffe ..	3534
Emmott, A.		Oldham	5408
Erskine, D. C. ..		Perthshire, W.	803
Esmonde, Sir T. H. G., Bart.		Wexford, N. ..	1670
Essex, R. W. ..		Cirencester ..	596
Esslemont, G. B. .		Aberdeen, S. ..	367
Evans, Sir S. T. K.C.		Glamorgsh., Mid	unop
Everett, R. L. ..		Woodbridge ..	179
Faber, G. D... ..		York	14
Faber, G. H... ..		Boston	107
Faber, Capt. W. V.		Andover . ..	79
Fardell, Sir T. G. .		Paddington, S.	1417
Farrell, J. P. . ..		Longford, N. .	unop
Fell, A.		Yarmouth ..	236
Fenwick, C.		Wansbeck ..	7176
Ferens, T. R. . ..		Hull, E.	2362
Ferguson, R. C. Munro-		Leith District	2812
Fetherstonhaugh, G., K.C.		Fermanagh, N.	88
Ffrench, P. .. .	N	Wexford, S. ..	unop
Field, W. .. .	N	St. Patrick's ..	unop
Fiennes, Hon. E. E.	L	Banbury . ..	1196
Findlay, A.	L	Lanarksh., N.E.	1598
Flavin, M. J. . ..	N	Kerry, N. ..	unop
Fletcher, Rt. Hon. Sir H. Aubrey-, Bt.	C	Lewes	1714
Fletcher, J. S. ..	C	Hampstead ..	473
Flynn, J. C.	N	Cork, N. ..	unop
Forster, Rt. Hon. H. O. Arnold-	C	Croydon ..	1007
Forster, H. W. .		Sevenoaks .	364
Foster, Rt. Hon. Sir W.		Ilkeston Dist.	429
Fox, G. R. Lane-		Barkston Ash	648
Freeman-Thomas, F.		Bodmin .. .	1093
Fuller, J. M. F. .		Westbury	1476
Fullerton, H. . .		Egremont	812

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Furness, Sir C. ..	L	Hartlepool ..	unop
Gardner, E.	C	Wokingham ..	1325
George, Rt. Hon. D. Lloyd	L	Carnarvon Dis.	1224
Gibb, J.	L	Harrow ..	416
Gibbs, G. A. . ..	C	Bristol, W.	365
Gilhooly, J.	N	Cork, W.	unop
Gill, A. H.	Lab	Bolton	3723
Ginnell, L.	N	Westmeath, N.	unop
Gladstone, Rt.Hon. H. J.	L	Leeds, W.	2808
Glendinning, R. .	L	Antrim, N.	788
Glover, T.	Lab	St. Helens ..	1141
Goddard, Sir D. F.	L	Ipswich	1805
Gomm, H. W.Carr-	L	Rotherhithe ..	1371
Gooch, G. P...		Bath	946
Gooch, H. C. ..	C	Peckham ..	2494
Gordon, J., K.C. .	C	Derry, S. ..	71
Goulding, E. A. ..	C	Worcester ..	1292
Grant, J. C., K.C.	L	Rugby	274
Grayson, Victor .	Soc	Colne Valley .	153
Greenwood, G. G. .	Lab	Peterborough .	1159
Greenwood, H. ..	L	York	319
Gretton, J.	U	Rutland . ..	851
Grey, Rt. Hon. Sir E., Bart.	L	Berwk-on-Twd.	2240
Griffith, Ellis ..	L	Anglesey . ..	unop
Grove, T. N. A. ..	L	Northants, S. .	322
Guest, Hon. I. C.	L	Cardiff	300
Guinness, Hon. R.	C	Haggerston ..	1143
Guinness, Hon. W.	C	Bury St. Edm.	890
Gulland, J. W. ..	L	Dumfries Dis. .	633
Gurdon, Rt. Hon. Sir W. B., Bart.	L	Norfolk, N. ..	1527
Gwynn, S.	N	Galway City ..	424
Haddock, G. B. ..	C	N. Lonsdale ..	179
Haldane, Rt. Hon. R. B., K.C.	L	Haddingtonsh.	1180
Hall, F.	Lab	Normanton ..	unop
Halpin, J.	N	Clare, W. ..	unop
Hamilton, Marquis	C	Londonderry	unop
Harcourt, Rt. Hon. L. V.	L	Rossendale ..	2219
Harcourt, R. V. ..	L	MontroseBrghs.	1146
Hardie, J. Keir ..	Lab	Merthyr Tydvil	2411
Hardy, G. A. . ..	L	Stowmarket	213
Hardy, L.	C	Ashford	381
Harmsworth, C. B.	L	Droitwich ..	554
Harmsworth, R. L.	L	Caithness-shire	2203
Harrington, T. C. .	N	Dublin Harbr.	2750
Harris, F. Leverton	C	Stepney	949
Hartland, Sir F. D. Dixon-, Bart.	C	Uxbridge ..	145
Harvey, A. G. C. .	L	Rochdale ..	1463
Harvey, W. E. ..	L	N.E. Derby ..	729
Harwood, G. .. .	L	Bolton	4260
Haslam, J.	Lab	Chesterfield ..	1664
Haslam, L.	L	Monmouth Dis.	592
Haworth. A. A. ..	L	Manchester, S.	4232
Hay, Hon. C. G. D.	C	Hoxton	736
Hayden, J. P. ..	N	Roscommon, S.	unop
Hazel, Dr. A. E. W.	L	W. Bromwich .	1216
Hazleton, R. . ..	N	N. Galway ..	unop
Healy, T. M., K.C.	N	Louth, N. ..	819
Heaton, J. Henniker	C	Canterbury ..	948
Hedges, A. P. ..	L	Tonbridge ..	1283
Helme, N. W.. ..	L	Lancaster. ..	884
Helmsley, Lord ..	C	Thirsk&Malton	804
Hemmerde, E. G. .	L	E. Denbigh ..	2791
Henderson, A. ..	Lab	Barnard Castle	165

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Henderson, J.McD.		Aberdnshre., W.	3158
Henry, C. S. . ..		Wellgton, Salop	1692
Herbert, Col. Sir Ivor, Bart.		Monmothsh., S.	1287
Herbert, T. A. ..		Wycombe ..	1215
Hicks, W. Joynson-		Mnchstr., N.W.	429
Higham, J. S.. ..		Sowerby ..	2448
Hill, Sir C. L. ..		Shrewsbury ..	440
Hill, H. Staveley-		Kingswinford	841
Hills, J. W.		Durham City	433
Hobart, Sir R. H. .		New Forest ..	48
Hobhouse, C. E. H.	..	Bristol, E. ..	4806
Hodge, J.	Lab	Gorton	4225
Hogan, M.	N	Tipperary, N. .	unop
Holden, E. H. ..	L	Heywood ..	1106
Holland, Sir W. H.	L	Rotherham ..	1905
Holt, R. D.	L	Hexham ..	1157
Hood, Rt. Hon. Sir A. F. Acland-, Bt.	C	Wellgton. Som.	272
Hooper, A. G. ..	L	Dudley	754
Hope, J. D.	L	Fife, W. . ..	4916
Hope, J. F.	C	Sheffield, C. ..	unop
Hope, W. H. B. ..	L	Somerset, N. .	2246
Hornby, Sir W. H., Bart.		Blackburn ..	1359
Horniman, E. J. .	L	Chelsea	629
Horridge, T. G. .	L	Manchester, E.	1980
Houston, R. P. .	C	Toxteth, W. ..	781
Howard, Hon. G..	L	Eskdale . ..	237
Hudson, W. .. .	Lab	Newcastle-on-T	6927
Hunt, R. .. .	C	Ludlow	760
Hutton, A. E. .	L	Morley	unop
Hyde, C. G. .. .	L	Wednesbury .	944
Idris, T. H. W. .	L	Flint District ..	376
Illingworth, P. H.	L	Shipley	unop
Isaacs, R. D., K.C.	L	Reading	697
Jackson, R. S. ..	L	Greenwich ..	1341
Jacoby, Sir J. A. .	L	Derbyshire, Mid	3590
Jardine, Sir J. .	L	Roxburghshire	315
Jenkins J. .. .	Lab	Chatham ..	2672
Johnson, J. .. .	Lab	Gateshead ..	4525
Johnson, W. . .	Lab	Nuneaton. ..	1328
Jones, Sir D. B. .	L	Swansea . ..	unop
Jones, L. Atherley	L	Durham, N.W.	5154
Jones, L. S. .. .	L	Appleby	3
Jones, W. .. .	L	Arfon	3412
Jordan, J. N. ..	N	Fermanagh, N.	unop
Jowett, F. W. ..	Lab	Bradford, W...	810
Joyce, Michael .	N	Limerick City .	unop
Kavanagh, W. M.	N	Carlow	unop
Kearley, Sir Hudson E., Bart.		Devonport ..	1684
Kekewich, Sir G. ..	..	Exeter	85
Kelley, G. D. . ..	Lab	Manchestr., S.W	1266
Kennaway, Rt.Hon Sir J. H., Bart.		Honiton	1143
Kennedy, V. P. ..		Cavan, W. ..	unop
Kerry, Earl of ..		Derby, W. ..	unop
Keswick, W... ..		Epsom	1095
Kettle, T. M. ..		Tyrone, E. ..	19
Kilbride, D.		Kildare, S. ..	unop
Kimber, Sir H., Bt.		Wandsworth .	545
King, A. J.		Knutsford ..	700
King, Sir H. S. ..		Hull, Central .	1178
Laidlaw, R.		Renfrewshire, E	'95
Lamb, Edmund .		Leominster ..	28
Lamb, E. H... ..		Rochester ..	593
Lambert, George ..		South Molton .	unop
Lambton, Hon. F.W.		Durham, S.E. .	unop
Lamont., N... ..		Buteshire ..	120
Langley, J. Batty .		Attercliffe ..	787

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Lardner, J. C. R.	N	Monaghan, N.	unop
Law, A. Bonar	C	Dulwich	1279
Law, H. A.	N	Donegal, W.	unop
Lea, H. C.	L	St. Pancras, E.	1881
Lee, A. H.	C	Fareham	1352
Leese, Sir J.F., K.C.	L	Accrington	2357
Lehmann, R. C.	L	Harborough	1998
Lever, A. L.	L	Harwich	342
Lever, W. H.	L	Wirral	1701
Levy, Sir Maurice	L	Loughborough	1780
Lewis, J. H.	L	Flintshire	2722
Lockwood, Lt.-Col. Rt. Hon. A.R.M.	C	Epping	1174
Long, Col. C. W.	C	Evesham	92
Long, Rt. Hn. W.H.	C	Dublin Co., S.	1343
Lonsdale, J. B.	C	Armagh, Mid.	unop
Lough, T.	L	Islington, W.	498
Lowe, Sir F. W.	C	Edgbaston	4160
Lowther, Rt. Hon. J. W. (Speaker)	C	Penrith	unop
Lundon, W.	N	Limerick Co.	unop
Lupton, A.	L	Sleaford	293
Luttrell, H. C. Fownes-	L	Tavistock	1209
Lyell, C. H.	L	Dorset, E.	19
Lynch, H. F. B.	L	Ripon	313
Lyttelton, Rt. Hon. A.	C	St. George's, Hanover Sq.	unop
MacCaw, W. J.	C	Down, W.	1291
Macdonald, J. A. M.	L	Falkirk Dist.	1982
Macdonald, J. R.	Lab	Leicester	7181
Mackarness, F. C.	L	Newbury	402
Maclean, D.	L	Bath	979
Macnamara, Dr. T. J.	L	Camberwell, N.	2817
MacNeill, J. G. S.	N	Donegal, S.	unop
MacPherson, J. T.	Lab	Preston	2878
MacVeagh, J.	N	Down, S.	643
M'Arthur, Charles	C	Kirkdale	670
McCallum, J. M.	L	Paisley	3070
McCalmont, Col. J. M.	C	Antrim, E.	2351
McCrae, Sir G.	L	Edinburgh, E.	4174
McHugh, P. A.	N	Sligo, N.	unop
McIver, Sir L., Bt.	C	Edinburgh, W.	306
McKean, J.	N	Monaghan, S.	unop
McKenna, Rt. Hon. R.	L	Monmthsh., N.	4575
McKillop, W.	N	Armagh, S.	unop
McLaren, Sir C. B. B., Bart.	L	Bosworth	4051
McLaren, H. D.	L	Staffs, W.	878
McMicking, Maj. G.	L	Kirkcud'shire	297
McVeigh, C.	N	Donegal, E.	unop
Maddison, F.	Lab	Burnley	324
Magnus, Sir P.	C	London Univ.	24
Mallet, C. E.	L	Plymouth	2367
Manfield, H.	L	Northants, Mid.	1240
Mansfield, H. R.	L	Spalding	1620
Markham, A. B.	L	Mansfield	unop
Marks, G. C.	L	Launceston	1922
Marks, H. H.	C	Thanet	1193
Marnham, F. J.	L	Chertsey	99
Mason, A. E. W.	L	Coventry	1092
Mason, J. F.	C	Windsor	128
Massie, J.	L	Cricklade Dist.	1578
Masterman, C. F. G.	L	West Ham, N.	1744
Meagher, M.	N	Kilkenny, N.	unop
Meehan, F.	N	Leitrim, N.	1946
Meehan, P. A.	N	Leix	unop
Menzies, W.	L	Lanarkshire, S.	1275

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Micklem, N., K.C.	L	Watford	1476
Middlebrook, W.	L	Leeds, S.	359
Middlemore, J. T.	C	Birmingh'm, N.	3897
Mildmay, F. B.	C	Totnes	2228
Molteno, P. A.	L	Dumfriesshire	1383
Mond, A.	L	Chester	47
Money, L. G. C.	L	Paddington, N.	1406
Montagu, E. S.	L	Chesterton	513
Montgomery, H. G.	L	Bridgwater	17
Mooney, J. J.	N	Newry	67
Moore, W., K.C.	C	Armagh, N.	2796
Morgan, G. Hay	L	Truro	504
Morgan, J. L., K.C.	L	Carmarthen, W.	unop
Morpeth, Viscount	C	Birmingham, S.	2900
Morrell, P.	L	Henley	512
Morse, L. L.	L	Wilton	724
Morton, A. C.	L	Sutherlandshire	450
Muldoon, J.	N	East Wicklow	unop
Muntz, Sir P.A., Bt.	C	Tamworth	2719
Murnaghan, G.	N	Tyrone, Mid.	unop
Murphy, N. J.	N	Kilkenny, S.	unop
Murphy, J.	N	Kerry, E.	54
Murray, Capt.	L	Kincardineshire	169
Murray, J.	L	Aberdeen E.	1830
Myer, H.	L	Lambeth, N.	258
Nanetti, J. P.	N	College Green	unop
Napier, T. B.	L	Faversham	1834
Newnes, F. H.	L	Bassetlaw	531
Newnes, Sir G., Bt.	L	Swansea Town	1454
Nicholls, G.	Lab	Northants, N.	685
Nicholson, C. N.	L	Doncaster	3669
Nicholson, W. G.	C	Petersfield	98
Nield, H.	C	Ealing	1279
Nolan, J.	N	Louth, S.	unop
Norman, Sir H.	L	Wolverh'mp., S.	686
Norton, Capt. C. W.	L	Newington, W.	2021
Nugent, Sir W., Bt.	N	West Meath, S.	unop
Nussey, T. W.	L	Pontefract	807
Nuttall, H.	L	Stretford	2824
O'Brien, K. E.	N	Tipperary, Mid.	unop
O'Brien, Patrick	N	Kilkenny City	unop
O'Brien, William	N	Cork City	unop
O'Connor, James	N	Wicklow, W.	unop
O'Connor, John	N	Kildare, N.	unop
O'Connor, T. P.	N	Scotland, L'p'l	1691
Oddy, J. J.	C	Pudsey	113
O'Doherty, P.	N	Donegal, N.	unop
O'Donnell, C. J.	L	Walworth	769
O'Donnell, J.	N	Mayo, S.	unop
O'Donnell, T.	N	Kerry, W.	unop
O'Dowd, J.	N	Sligo, S.	unop
O'Grady, J.	Lab	Leeds, E.	2091
O'Kelly, C.	N	Mayo, N.	unop
O'Kelly, J.	N	Rosc'mmon, N.	unop
O'Malley, W.	N	Connemara	unop
O'Neill, Hon. R. T.	N	Antrim, Mid.	790
O'Shaughnessy, P. J.	N	Limerick, W.	unop
O'Shee, J. J.	N	Waterford, W.	unop
Parker, Sir Gilbert	C	Gravesend	1689
Parker, J.	Lab	Halifax	3896
Parkes, Ebenezer	C	Brmghm Cntral	3609
Partington, O.	L	High Peak	796
Paul, H. W.	L	Northampton	401
Paulton, J. M.	L	Bishp. Auckld.	4374
Pearce, R.	L	Leek	1474
Pearce, W.	L	Limehouse	974
Pearson, H.	L	Eye	197
Pearson, Sir W. D., Bt.	L	Colchester	310
Pease, H. P.	C	Darlington	288

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Pease, J. A.	L	Saffron Walden	1268
Percy, Earl	C	Kensington, S.	3211
Perks, Sir R. W., Bart.	L	Louth	979
Philipps, Lt.-Col. I.	L	Southampton	1278
Philips, John	N	Longford, S.	unop
Philipps, O. C.	L	Pembroke Dist.	1019
Pickersgill, E. H.	L	Bthnl Gn., S.W.	1478
Pirie, D. V.	L	Aberdeen, N.	2914
Pollard, Dr. G. H.	L	Eccles	595
Ponsonby, A. A. W. H.	L	Stirling Burghs	1361
Powell, Sir F. S., Bt.	C	Wigan	1368
Power, P. J.	N	Waterford, E.	unop
Price, C. E.	L	Edinbrgh. Cnt.	2078
Price, Sir R. J.	L	Norfolk, E.	2196
Priestley, A.	L	Grantham	109
Priestley, W. E. B.	L	Bradford, E.	1908
Puller, Sir R. L.	L	Perth	unop
Radford, G. H.	L	Islington, E.	767
Rainy, A. R.	L	Kilmarnock Burghs	2525
Randles, Sir J. S.	C	Cockermouth	690
Raphael, H. H.	L	Derbyshire, S.	1493
Rasch, Major Sir F. C., Bart.	C	Chelmsford	454
Ratcliff, R. F.	C	Burton	1041
Rawlinson, J. F. P.	C	Camb. Univ.	1323
Rea, Russell	L	Gloucester	302
Rea, W. R.	L	Scarborough	509
Reddy, M.	N	Birr	unop
Redmond, J. E.	N	Waterford City	unop
Redmond, W. H. K.	N	Clare, E.	unop
Rees, J. D.	L	Montgomery District	85
Remnant, J. F.	C	Holborn	1175
Rendall, Athelstan	L	Thornbury	2130
Renton, Maj. L.	L	Gainsborough	851
Renwick, G.	C	Newcstle-on-T.	2143
Richards, Thomas	Lab	Monmouth, W.	unop
Richards, T. F.	Lab	Wolverhmptn, W.	168
Richardson, A.	Lab	Nottingham, S.	800
Rickett, Sir J. C.	L	Osgoldcross	4124
Ridsdale, E. A.	L	Brighton	731
Robartes, Hon. T. C. Agar-	L	St. Austell	unop
Roberts, Charles	L	Lincoln	1392
Roberts, G. H.	Lab	Norwich	3599
Roberts, Sir J. H., Bart.	L	Denbghshre, W.	unop
Roberts, S.	C	Ecclesall	464
Robertson, Sir G. S.	L	Bradford, Cen.	1349
Robertson, J. M.	L	Tyneside	4611
Robinson, S.	L	Brecknockshre	2277
Robson, Sir W. S.	L	South Shields	6286
Roch, W. F.	L	Pembrokeshire	2172
Roche, Augustine	N	Cork City	unop
Roche, John	N	Galway, E.	unop
Roe, Sir Thomas	L	Derby	3818
Rogers, F. N.	L	Devizes	614
Ronaldshay, Lord	C	Hornsey	unop
Ropner, Sir R., Kt.	C	St'kton-o'-Tees	1655
Rose, C. D.	L	Newmarket	783
Rothschild, Hon. L. W.	C	Aylesbury	1212
Rowlands, J.	L	Dartford	2804
Runciman, Rt. Hon. W.	L	Dewsbury	1516
Russell, T. W.	L	Tyrone, S.	283
Rutherford, J.	C	Darwen	25
Rutherford, Dr. V. H.	L	Brentford	453
Rutherford, W. W.	C	West Derby	1847
Salter, A. C.	C	Basingstoke	259
Samuel, H. L.	L	Cleveland	unop
Samuel, Stuart M.	L	Whitechapel	356
Sandys, Col. T. M.	C	Bootle	340
Sassoon, Sir E. A., Bart.	C	Hythe	890
Scarisbrick, T. L.	L	Dorset, S.	624
Schwann, C. D.	L	Hyde	1063
Schwann, Sir C. E., Bart.	L	Manchester, N.	2454
Scott, A. H.	L	Ashton-u-Lyne	968
Scott, Sir S. E., Bt.	C	Marylebone, W.	655
Sears, J. E.	L	Cheltenham	401
Seaverns, J. H.	L	Brixton	286
Seddon, J.	Lab	Newton	541
Seely, Col. J. E. B.	L	Abercromby	199
Shackleton, D. J.	Lab	Clitheroe	8207
Shaw, Sir C. E., Bt.	L	Stafford	311
Shaw, Rt. Hon. T.	L	Hawick Dist.	681
Sheehan, Daniel D.	N	Cork, Mid.	unop
Sheehy, David	N	Meath, S.	unop
Sheffield, Sir Berkeley	C	Brigg	116
Sherwell, A. J.	L	Huddersfield	340
Shipman, Dr. J. G.	L	Northampton	166
Silcock, T. B.	L	Wells	385
Simon, J. A.	L	Walthamstow	3937
Sinclair, Capt. Rt. Hon. J.	L	Forfarshire	3519
Sloan, T. H.	C	Belfast, S.	816
Smeaton, D. M.	L	Stirlingshire	3669
Smith, A. H.	C	Hertford	80
Smith, F. E.	C	Walton	709
Smith, Capt. M. K.	L	Stratford-o-Avn	148
Smith, Hon. W. F. D.	C	Strand	3935
Smyth, T.	N	Leitrim, S.	unop
Snowden, P.	Lab	Blackburn	1350
Soames, A. W.	L	Norfolk, S.	1158
Soares, E. J.	L	Barnstaple	2045
Spicer, Sir A., Bart.	L	Hackney, Cent.	616
Stanger, H. Y.	L	Kensington, N.	1058
Stanier, B.	C	Newport (Salop)	951
Stanley, Hon. A.	C	Ormskirk	2316
Stanley, Hon. A. L.	L	Eddisbury	1123
Stanley, A.	L	Staffs, N.W.	2319
Starkey, J. R.	C	Newark	328
Steadman, W. C.	Lab	Finsbury, Cent.	694
Stewart, H.	L	Greenock	342
Stewart-Smith, D.	L	Kendal	252
Stone, Sir J. B.	C	Birmingham, E.	585
Strachey, Sir E., Bt	L	Somerset, S.	1917
Straus, B. S.	L	Mile End	126
Strauss, E. A.	L	Abingdon	176
Stuart, J.	L	Sunderland	5741
Stuart-Wortley, Rt Hon. C. B.	C	Hallam	81
Summerbell, T.	Lab	Sunderland	5551
Sutherland, J. E.	L	Elgin Burghs	1956
Talbot, Lord E. B.	C	Chichester	1023
Talbot, Rt. Hn. J. G.	C	Oxford Univ.	unop
Taylor, Austin	L	Toxteth, E.	unop
Taylor, J. W.	Lab	Chester-le-St.	3190
Taylor, T. C.	L	Radcliffe	1602
Tennant, Sir E. P., Bart.	L	Salisbury	41
Tennant, H. J.	L	Berwickshire	1351
Thomas, Abel, K.C.	L	Carmarthen, E.	unop
Thomas, Sir A.	L	Glamorgan, E.	unop

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Thomas, D. A. ..	L	Merthyr Tydvil	6195
Thomasson, F. ..	L	Leicester ..	3560
Thompson, J. W. H.	L	Somerset, E. ..	663
Thompson, Maj. E. C. Meysey-	C	Handsworth ..	4771
Thomson, W. Mitchell-	C	Lanark, N.W.	675
Thorne, G. R. ..	L	Wlvrhmptn., E.	8
Thorne, W.	Lab	West Ham, S.	5237
Thornton, P. M. ..	C	Clapham ..	96
Tillett, L. J. ..	L	Norwich ..	3512
Tomkinson, J. ..	L	Crewe	2508
Torrance, Sir A. M.	L	Glasgow, Cent.	431
Toulmin, George ..	L	Bury	1127
Trevelyan, C. P. ..	L	Elland	3647
Tuke, Sir J. B. ..	C	Edin. & St. Andrew's Univs.	2583
Ure, A., K.C. ..	L	Linlithgowshire	2521
Valentia, Rt. Hon. Viscount	C	Oxford City ..	100
Verney, F. W. ..	L	Buckingham ..	1580
Villiers, E. A. ..	L	Brighton ..	874
Vivian, H.	L	Birkenhead ..	1803
Wadsworth, J. ..	Lab	Hallamshire ..	1568
Waldron, L. A. ..	N	St.Stephen'sGn.	1474
Walker, H. de R...	L	Melton	1767
Walker, Col. W. H.	C	Widnes	852
Walrond, Hon. L...	C	Tiverton.. ..	485
Walsh, S.	Lab	Ince	4636
Walters, J. T. ..	L	Brightside ..	1001
Walton, Joseph ..	L	Barnsley ..	3193
Ward, J.	Lab	Stoke-on-Trent	3372
Ward, W. D. ..	L	Southampton .	501
Warde, Col. C. E.	C	Medway ..	106
Wardle, G. J. ..	Lab	Stockport ..	2708
Waring, Capt. W.	L	Banffshire ..	2009
Warner, T. C. T. ..	L	Lichfield.. ..	2430
Wason, Rt. Hon. E.	L	Clackmannan and Kinross	1379
Wason, J. C. ..	L	Orkney & Shet.	2816
Waterlow, D. S. ..	L	Islington, N. ..	866
Watt, H. A... ..	L	College, Glas...	1683

Members.	Pty	Constituencies.	Maj.
Wedgwood, J. C...	L	Newcastle-under-Lyme	2207
Weir, J. Galloway	L	Ross and Cromarty	2110
Whitbread, S. H...	L	Hunts	469
White, Sir George	L	Norfolk, N.W.	2800
White, J. D. ..	L	Dumb'rt'nshire	467
White, Sir Luke ..	L	Buckrose ..	1602
White, P.	L	Meath, N. ..	unop
Whitehead, R. ..	L	Essex, S.E. ..	2060
Whitley, J. H. ..	L	Halifax	4313
Whittaker, Sir T. P.	L	Spen Valley ..	2864
Wiles, T.	L	Islington, S. ..	1615
Wilkie, A.	Lab	Dundee	711
Williams, A. O. ..	L	Merionethshire	unop
Williams, J... ..	Lab	Gower (Glam.)	299
Williams, Col. R...	C	Dorset, W. ..	837
Williams, W. L. ..	L	Carmarthen Dist.	2094
Williamson, A. ..	L	Elgin & Nairn	1460
Willoughby de Eresby, Lord	C	Horncastle ..	150
Willis, A. W. ..	L	Dorset, N. ..	645
Wilson, A. S. ..	C	Holderness ..	29
Wilson, G. G. ..	L	Hull, W. ..	241
Wilson, H. J. ..	L	Holmfirth ..	4173
Wilson, John ..	Lab	Durham, Mid.	unop
Wilson, J. H. ..	Lab	Middlesbrough	2381
Wilson, J. W. ..	L	Worcestrsh., N.	479
Wilson, P. W. ..	L	St. Pancras, S.	61
Wilson, W. T. ..	Lab	Westhoughton	3128
Winfrey, R.	L	Norfolk, S.W.	903
Winterton, Earl ..	C	Horsham ..	617
Wodehouse, Lord .	L	Norfolk, Mid...	27
Wolff, G. W. ..	C	Belfast, E. ..	unop
Wood, T. McK. ..	L	St. Rollox, Glasgow	3405
Wyndham, Rt. Hon. George	C	Dover	1564
Young, S.	N	Cavan, E. ..	unop
Younger, G... ..	C	Ayr Burghs ..	261
Yoxall, J. H. ..	L	Nottingham, W.	2845

ORGANISATIONS.

Liberal Central Association, 41, Parliament Street, S.W.

National Liberal Federation, 42, Parliament Street, S.W.

Home Counties Liberal Federation, 42, Parliament Street, S.W.

Scottish Liberal Association, 95, Princes Street, Edinburgh.

Women's Liberal Federation, 124, Victoria Street, S.W.

Women's Liberal Association, 138, Palace Chambers, S.W.

Liberal League, Queen Anne's Gate, S.W.

Liberal Social Council, 92, Victoria Street.

New Reform Club, 10, Adelphi Terrace, W.C.

Conservative Association, St. Stephen Chambers, Bridge Street, S.W.

Unionist Association, 6, Great George Street.

Primrose League, 64, Victoria Street, S.W.

Labour Party, 28, Victoria Street, S.W.

Independent Labour Party, 23, Bride Lane.

Fabian Society, 3, Clement's Inn, W.C.

Cobden Club, 28, Victoria Street, S.W.

Free Trade Union, 8, Victoria Street, S.W.

Tariff Reform League, 7, Victoria Street, S.W.

Tariff Commission, 7, Victoria Street, S.W.

National League of Young Liberals, 5, Duke Street, Adelphi, W.C.

Young Scots Society, 11, Campbell Avenue, Glasgow.

OFFICIALS.

Chairman of Committees House of Lords ..	Earl of Onslow.
Clerk of Parliaments ..	Sir H. J. L. Graham.
Mr. Speaker	Right Hon. J. W. Lowther, M.P.
Chairman of Committees	Mr. Alfred Emmott.
Clerk of House of Commons	Sir C. P. Ilbert.
Chaplain to the House..	Archdeacon Wilberforce.

PARLIAMENTARY WHIPS.

Liberal.

Mr. J. A. Pease.
Mr. J. H. Lewis.
Mr. J. H. Whitley.
Capt. C. Norton.
Mr. J. M. F. Fuller.
Sir E. Strachey.
Master of Elibank.

Conservative.

Sir A. Acland Hood.
Viscount Valentia.
Mr. H. W. Forster.
Lord Balcarres.
Lord E. Talbot.
Mr. H. P. Pease.

Labour.

Mr. C. Duncan.
Mr. G. H. Roberts.

Nationalist.

Mr. P. O'Brien.
Mr. J. P. Boland.
Capt. A. J. C. Donelan.
Mr. E. Haviland-Burke.
Mr. Flynn.

SECTION 4.
TRAVEL AND TRAFFIC.

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR.
THE PROBLEM, AND ATTEMPTS TO SOLVE IT.

By far the most striking feature of the past year from the mechanical standpoint has been the rapid progress achieved towards the conquest of the air. Indeed, in view of the extraordinary results already obtained with **flying-machines**, both in France and the **United** States, it is scarcely an exaggeration **to** say that the final victory has been won.

A type of **flying-machine** has been devised which can keep **the air for more than an hour and a half, and cover in that time a distance of over fifty miles.** This is a complete revolution in the art of transit, and its ultimate effects upon the human race are impossible to foresee. The land is man's natural element; the sea was traversed by him from prehistoric days; the air alone has hitherto defied all his efforts to journey through it. It alone of the elements is continuous and unbroken over the whole area of the globe. The **annihilation of frontiers, the elimination of mountain-ranges, rivers, and straits, and even of oceans, will follow as the new flying-machines are perfected.**

Very much yet remains to be accomplished in the direction of rendering these machines safe and trustworthy. The flying-machines of to-day, looked at twenty years hence, will probably be found to stand to the aeroplanes of 1929 much as the Daimler motor-car of 1885 compares with the motor-car of 1909. But the Rubicon has been crossed, and every month longer and yet longer flights by mechanical means with machines heavier than air are being achieved by daring experimentalists, so that all scepticism has vanished.

The problem of flight has been solved so far as concerns these points: (1) It has been finally proved that a flying-machine, carrying engine, fuel, and passengers **can lift itself in the air** without resorting to the sustaining power of gas; (2) that such a flying-machine can be driven through the air at **high velocity with very much less power than is required to drive a balloon slowly**; (3) that the **stability** of the flying-machine can be maintained so long as there is no engine breakdown and there is not a high wind. **In a wind, as yet,** the aeroplane is helpless.

Important points which yet await solution are these: (1) The introduction of an **automatic** device for **maintaining equilibrium, especially in high winds,** without perpetual effort on the part of the aviator; (2) The provision **of means for safe descent,** in the event of any accident to the engines of the flying-machine; **(3) lighter engines** and lighter materials for **construction,** which will enable aeroplanes to **be** built of sufficient power and strength to make headway against strong winds; (4) **better means of alighting and starting.**

As to 1, the **gyroscope** seems likely to supply **some** means of automatically maintaining the balance, and its application has been suggested by Mr. Edison. With regard to 2, only experiment can provide a type of flying-machine the planes of which are capable of acting as a parachute and breaking a fall. Such **experiments must necessarily be attended with danger,** and until they have been carried out with success, peril will attach to the use of flying-machines. With regard to 3, lighter engines are being produced every year, and the **new alloy of aluminium and magnesium** may give the very light and strong material needed.

Airships and Aeroplanes.—There are **two distinct types of appliance** with which man is attempting the conquest of the air:

(1) **Lighter-than-air flying - machines,** or dirigible balloons, or airships. These are large balloons, generally cigar-shaped, fitted with propellers to drive them against the wind or increase their speed with it, and with planes for maintaining their balance, and horizontal and vertical rudders for altering their level or direction. They have the **disadvantages** of being **extremely bulky, difficult to handle in a strong wind,** and **liable to destruction** if they are caught in a storm away from their special dock or shed. Their **lifting power is small,** and cannot be increased without augmenting their bulk and so creating fresh difficulties.

(2) **Heavier-than-air flying - machines,** or **aeroplanes.** These have no gas-bag or balloon, but are constructed on the **principle of the kite,** which, when drawn by a string, soars aloft by the pressure of the air on its undersurface. The force exerted by the string is replaced in the aeroplane by an engine driving propellers. Instead of the one plane-surface of the ordinary kite, there are in most aeroplanes a number of plane-surfaces connected together by stays.

The **Brothers Wright** employ two planes, above and below the seats for passengers. **Mr. Farman's aeroplane** has four large planes and a number of smaller ones. **M. Delagrange's aeroplane** is generally similar to Mr. Farman's, differing from it in points of detail. The aeroplane requires a start before it can rise; in the Wright aeroplane this is secured by a peculiar **derrick, which launches the machine;** in the **Farman aeroplane bicycle wheels** are fitted and the machine takes a run along the ground before it soars. **It is with the heavier-than-air machine that the hope of the future lies,** as there seems to be no limit to its lifting power, and the progress achieved with it in 1908 has been amazing.

AIRSHIPS.

The following are **particulars** of some of the most important **airships** of the year:

Name.	Nation.	Designer.	Length.	Diameter.	Horse-power.
			Ft.	Ft.	
No. 4 ..	German	Count Zeppelin	446	42·8	220
Gross No. 2	German	Major Gross	218	36	150*
République	French	—	200	35	80†

* German military dirigible. † French military dirigible.

Count Zeppelin's No. 4 was sustained when in the air by sixteen separate small balloons, containing hydrogen, which were enclosed side by side in a rigid aluminium framework, the shape of the whole structure being that of a gigantic cigar. **Between each pair of balloons was a sheet of aluminium,** to prevent any disaster should the hydrogen in one balloon take fire. There were **two motors** of **Daimler pattern,** each developing **110 h.p.** and driving **two screws** on either side of the airship. They weighed, without the propellers and shafting, 550 lb. apiece.

Fixed horizontal planes, like the fins of a fish, maintained the balance of the airship in the air, and movable planes of sheet aluminium served as **vertical and horizontal rudders.** By means of the horizontal rudders the airship could rise without discharging ballast and descend without letting out hydrogen. **Everything in the airship was duplicated** as a precaution against breakdown. Fuel was carried for sixty hours.

Major Gross's airship is semi-rigid, as the gas-envelope is supported by **tubular steel frames** secured to a concave sheet of aluminium in the interior of the balloon. There are two propellers, each driven by an engine of 75 h.p.

The French military airship **République** has fixed vertical and horizontal planes to maintain its balance and two propellers. It carries a crew of four, and will be stationed at Belfort. The highest speed that it has attained in calm weather is 25 miles per hour.

The **Parseval "non-rigid" airship,** built for the German Army by Major von Parseval, was a dirigible balloon fitted with propellers. It was **wrecked** on September 16th, while proceeding to manœuvre before the Emperor, by a high wind which tore the support of a plane loose and dashed it against the gas-envelope. The gas escaped, and the airship fell, fortunately without injury to those in it, on the roof of a house.

An airship designed by **Mr. Morrell** ascended at Berkeley, in the United States, on May 23rd, with sixteen persons on board. Owing to some defect in the design, when 300 ft. up in the air, the airship tilted, the gas burst the envelope, and the vessel fell to the ground, injuring severely seven of those on board.

The **Wright aeroplane,** which so far has been by far the most successful, has two curved planes, with the convex side uppermost, each 40 ft. long and 6½ ft. wide. They are fixed 6 ft. apart, above and below the seat for the aviator. By pulling **a lever** the sides of the planes can be drawn down or pushed up in a curve, thus **preserving the balance if the machine tilts sideways. A second lever controls a rudder fitted to the tail of the aeroplane ; a third manipulates two small planes in front,** which raise or lower the bows of the aeroplane. The framing of the plane is made of spruce and ash, and the fabric used is muslin. Below the frame are skids, like the runners on a sledge, for the purpose of alighting.

To start, the wheels of a small truck below the machine are placed on a mono-rail, and the truck is attached to a heavy weight, suspended by a cable from a derrick. The engine having been started, the aviator releases the weight which, as it falls, drags the aeroplane rapidly along the mono-rail and shoots it off into space with a good impetus.

The **engine is of 30 to 35 h.p.** without carburettor, using petrol. The **propellers** are two in number and are made of spruce. The **special advantage of the Wright aeroplane lies in its balancing arrangement,** by which the planes, or wings, of the machine can be raised or lowered exactly as are the wings of a bird. Fuel for 500 miles can be carried.

RECORDS OF 1908.

The most important performances with aeroplanes and airships during 1908 were :

(1) HEAVIER-THAN-AIR MACHINE (AEROPLANE). ONE-MAN FLIGHT.

1908.	Name.	Place.	Distance. Miles.	Distance. Yds.	Time. Min.	Time. Sec.
January 13th .. .	**Farman***	Paris	—	1,630	1	28
March 21st	**Farman**	Paris	2	1,540		
May 13th	**Wright Bros.**	Manteo (U.S.A.)	6	—	7	40
May 30th	**Delagrange**	Rome	7	1,700	15	25
June 22nd	**Delagrange**	Milan	10	1,100	16	30
July 6th	**Farman**	Paris	11	—	20	18
September 5th .. .	**Delagrange**	Paris	15¼	—	29	53
September 9th .. .	**Orville Wright**	Ft. Meyer (U.S.A.)	37½	—	62	13
September 12th .. .	**Orville Wright**	Ft. Meyer (U.S.A.)	45	—	74	20
September 21st .. .	**Wilbur Wright**†	Le Mans	56	—	91	25

* Secured Deutsch-Archdeacon Prize for circular flight of 1 kilometre (1093 yards).
† French Aéro Club prize for longest flight down to September 30th, 1908. Officially recorded time (before sunset), 52 minutes. Distance, about 33 miles.

(2) HEAVIER-THAN-AIR MACHINE (AEROPLANE). TWO MEN ON THE AEROPLANE.

1908.	Name.	Place.	Miles.	Min.	Sec.	Carrying.
September 12th	**Orville Wright**	Ft. Meyer (U.S.A.)	6	9	6	Major Squier.
September 28th	**Wilbur Wright**	Le Mans	7		35	M. Tissandier.
October 3rd	**Wilbur Wright**	Le Mans	30		32	M. Reichel.
October 10th	**Wilbur Wright**	Le Mans	50		30	M. Painlève.

(3) HEAVIER-THAN-AIR MACHINE (AEROPLANE). POINT-TO-POINT FLIGHT.

1908.	Name.	From	To	Distance.	Time.
October 30th ..	**Farman**	Near Châlons	Rheims	17 miles	20 minutes

(4) LIGHTER-THAN-AIR FLYING-MACHINE (AIRSHIP).

1908.	Name.	Place.	Distance. Miles.	Time. Hrs.	Min.
July 1st	**Count Zeppelin**	Friedrichshafen — Lucerne — Zurich — Friedrichshafen.	200	11	50
August 4th ..	**Count Zeppelin***	Friedrichshafen — Basle — Strassburg —Maintz.	280	12	0
September 12th	**Major Gross†**	Berlin—Magdeburg—Berlin.	188	13	

* Airship, on August 5th, reascended and proceeded 140 miles, finally descending at Echterdingen, where it was wrecked by a storm. Reasons for descent: Motor defects and escape of hydrogen.

† German military "semi-rigid" airship.

The Farman and Delagrange records are of importance; but the **Wright Brothers, so far back as 1905, flew 24 miles with their aeroplane in Ohio.** Unfortunately, there were no trained expert observers present to time and measure this performance, but that it was actually done will now be doubted by few. All the records given above were timed and measured by expert observers and may be taken as absolutely trustworthy.

On September 17th, at Fort Meyer, a terrible accident befell **Mr. Orville Wright** while he was flying with unusual success. He ascended, with Lieut. Selfridge, of the U.S.A. Army, as a passenger, and had flown 6 miles when one of his propellers struck the wire to the rudder; the **propeller was broken and the rudder rendered useless.** The **aeroplane lost its balance and fell** heavily, mortally injuring Lieut. Selfridge and severely injuring Mr. Wright, who showed great presence of mind and stopped the other propeller before the machine struck the ground.

He is of opinion that if he had had a longer distance to fall, the machine could have been righted and the fall checked, as the aeroplane was righting just before it hit the ground. New and longer propellers had been fitted just before the accident. The propellers in the Wright aeroplane are of wood, which appears to increase the risk of such an accident.

Count **Zeppelin's voyage over Northern Switzerland** was the finest achievement which as yet stands to the credit of any airship, though it was surpassed by Major von Gros, with the German semi-rigid military airship so far as regards time spent in the air.

A much longer voyage was accomplished in the attempt to fulfil the conditions imposed by the German Staff for the purchase of the airship in August by Count Zeppelin, but this terminated in a disaster which illustrated the disadvantages of the lighter-than-air aerostat. After the Zeppelin No. 4's second descent, at Echterdingen, a violent storm came on, and the **airship was caught in the open and wrecked by the gale.** The hydrogen or petrol seems to have taken fire, and an explosion practically destroyed the airship. It is said that the reason for the descent was that the motors were giving trouble and that a good deal of hydrogen had been lost from the balloons, but no authoritative account of the mishap has been issued.

Count Zeppelin, with the help of a Government grant and a national subscription, has built **a yet more powerful airship,** Zeppelin No. 5, which, in November, was purchased by the German Army, after it had carried the Crown Prince from Friedrichshafen to Donaueschingen to meet the Emperor.

The **voyage of Major Gross** was noteworthy in that his journey to Magdeburg was accomplished in the face of a strong wind.

H. W. WILSON.

SHORE RIGHTS.

By the decision in the case of Lord Fitzhardinge and Purcell it appears that "the public have no right whatever to tidal waters, except for the purpose of navigation and, in some cases, of fishing." The "Observer" says that "it means that the general public will be entirely excluded from the seashore wherever the foreshore is subject to private ownership."

"In this particular case the Court found that Lord Fitzhardinge had obtained grants from the Crown of exclusive rights of fishery in that part of the tidal waters of the Severn, although they were in contravention of Magna Charta, and that he was therefore entitled to prevent anyone from coming or going on or over that part of the river-bed in question for any purpose whatsoever, other than and except for purposes of navigation and, in some cases, of fishing.

"In other words, **no member of the public has a right to be on the beaches and shores or on the seas around the English coast** within the three-mile limit unless he is engaged in fishing or navigation. There are very many places round the coast where the circumstances are the same as in Lord Fitzhardinge's case."

"The decision," said Mr. Lawrence Chubb, Secretary of the Commons and Footpaths Preservation Society, "is of great importance, for its results, if it be allowed to stand, will be very far-reaching. It is unfortunately a fact that **during the last few years almost every case respecting public rights-of-way and similar privileges which has come before the legal authorities for decision has gone against the public.**"

THE TURBINE'S TRIUMPH.

HOW IT REVOLUTIONISES TRAVEL.

The great works of present-day engineers teem with stupendous marvels that, in an earlier time, would have been thought of as romance.

The steam turbine has more than realised the hopes of its most sanguine designers. The mere fact that it is fitted to the biggest and swiftest ocean liners, and to the swiftest and biggest battleships, is a magnificent triumph. But that does not tell half the story.

One may safely predict now that few, if any, swift liners or warships will be fitted with reciprocating engines in the future. And with regard to the slow ocean tramps in which the turbine is not economical, the probability is that it will soon be fitted in these. But this will be in the rôle of a satellite, as a low pressure engine to utilise the exhaust steam from the compound reciprocating engines to a stage of expansion lower than that which is practicable with compounds.

Again, on land it is being adopted in preference to the high-speed reciprocating engines, excellently though these are built for the driving of electric generators; a central shaft direct, and in line from turbine to generator, engine and dynamo running at the same speed and in perfect balance, though making several thousands of revolutions in a minute, and nearly silently.

Steam turbine figures are astonishing. Revolutions per minute of the immense rotors of liners like those of the Lusitania and Mauretania, which do not exceed 200 per minute, require very perfect balancing and lubrication of journals and bearings. But for turbines which drive electric generators, 3,000 revolutions per minute are common.

At the extreme, however, some of the smaller De Laval turbines run at from **20,000 to 30,000 revolutions per minute.** The difficulties involved in design are formidable, but they are overcome. Standing alongside one of these turbines it is often difficult to realise that any movement is taking place, everything is in such perfect balance.

The speeds of the steam in its passage through the turbine rings are no less astonishing. Its rates of travel may range from 700 to over 1,000 feet per second. It supplies the resistless energy which sends the rings round at such high velocities. And but for the fact that the blades are made of intensely hard nickel steel, they would soon be scored away by the steam. Another risk is that of the blades becoming detached by flying out. Yet they do not, even though, with one or two exceptions, they are not cut in the solid metal, but fitted singly. They are so secured that they cannot get out. There are a million blades or more in the engines of a big liner like the Lusitania, yet not one ever gets loose.

The determination to use turbines for the Lusitania was made after noting the performances of the Queen, and one of the Newhaven-Dieppe boats. In these the largest engines weighed about 35 tons, while the largest engines on the Lusitania weigh between 400 and 500 tons, a most daring advance. Much courage was required on the part of the Cunard Company in the adoption of this method of propulsion for these mammoth vessels, but the choice has been fully justified.

The four propellers are driven by six turbines. Four of these form two compound pairs, high and low pressure respectively, and two are for driving astern. The high-pressure engines are at the sides, driving the two outermost, or wing, propellers. The two low-pressure drive the inner propellers. The two astern turbines drive these also. The dimensions of these are enormous.

"Rotor" is the term given to the rotating elements of the turbines. The high-pressure rotors are each 96 in. diameter, weighing 86 tons; the low-pressure ones are 140 in. diameter, weighing 120 tons; and the astern, 104 in., weighing 62 tons. The mere lubrication of the great bearings for these immense rotating masses, making about 180 revolutions per minute, involved a marvellous piece of engineering work for circulating and cooling the 4,700 gallons of oil required for maintaining the journals and bearings cool. A man 4. ft 8 in. high could stand upright in one of the empty bearings of the high-speed rotor.

The propeller shafts are 22 in. in diameter, bored with a 10-in. hole throughout. To develop the 65,000 h.p. of the engines, the boilers generate steam at 195 lb. pressure per sq. in. There are twenty-three of these, each 17 ft. 6 in. in diameter by 22 ft. long, with furnaces at each end, and two single-ended ones. The number of furnaces totals up to 192, and they consume about 48 tons of coal per hour. The total heating surface of the boilers is 158,352 sq. ft. They evaporate about 998,000 lb.—over 445 tons—of water per hour.

In the trials of the vessel, when she was running at a speed of 22·8 knots, she was brought to rest in three minutes fifty-five seconds, in a length of three-quarters of a mile, or about six times her length. When running a straight course, she was brought round in a complete circle within six minutes, in a circular path of about 1,000 yds., or four lengths of the ship in diameter. Running at full speed, the Lusitania consumes rather less than 1·5 lb. of coal per horse-power per hour. The bunker capacity provided is about 6,200 tons, which gives a margin of twenty hours steaming in excess of that which is required for full speed across the Atlantic.

It has been stated that the cost of a single voyage of one of these vessels is about £30,000. Ten years ago the cost of a voyage of one of the crack vessels was £19,000; twenty years ago it was about £10,000.

Turbines have been fitted to a German torpedo-boat. Though built in Germany, it is interesting to know that the German Admiralty have taken up from a German company the licence to build the Parsons turbine, which is, as is well known, an English design made under licence by the German firm.

The combination of turbines with the old compound reciprocating engines on vessels is the newest development. Three vessels are being fitted thus—the Otaki, an 8,000-ton cargo boat for the New Zealand Shipping Co.; the Laurentic, a passage and cargo steamer of

14,500 tons, for the White Star Line; and the Emerald steam yacht. Experiments were made in this direction on the destroyer Velox in 1902, and at present there are twenty-four installations of land engines in collieries and mills where the Parsons turbines have been combined with reciprocating engines.

Though the gas-driven turbine is an unrealised ideal, a great advance has been made in the recent cruise of the Rattler (September and October), driven by reciprocating gas-engines using producer-gas. She cruised for 2,000 miles without a hitch, and is the first vessel on which such an experiment has been made with success. What this means may not be readily grasped. If gas-engines and producer-gas are substituted for steam-engines and boilers, there will be no more stoking, since the producer is fed mechanically through a hopper. About half the quantity of coal will be required for a given power, and therefore less bunker space and more room for cargo. There is no smoke. Already a larger vessel is being talked about.

The Turbinia inaugurated turbine propulsion in as unobtrusive and experimental fashion as the Rattler has the engine using producer-gas. On land, the gas-producers of numerous designs have become quite common, and these, with blast furnace waste gases, have rendered the enormous gas-engines of 1,000 h.p. and upwards economical.

Mention was made in a previous YEAR BOOK of **the advent of the high-speed steels for cutting tools.** These steels are now used extensively in nearly every engineer's workshop for tools with single edges, for drills, milling cutters, and band and circular saws used for iron and steel. The spectacle is common of cutting being done so heavily that volumes of smoke constantly arise from the locality of cutting, and the heat is so intense that the cuttings turn blue as they peel off, and cannot be touched. The steel owes its remarkable property of retaining its cutting edge under these conditions to the presence of small proportions of certain metals alloyed with it. More than one element is present, and variations occur in different brands. Vanadium, molybdenum, chromium, silicon, are the principal controlling elements.

The high-speed tool steels have created a greater revolution in the designs of the machines in which they are used than any other agency has in the lifetime of the present generation. To find a parallel, one must go back to the development of the turret lathes, and to the growth in capacity and power which followed the general substitution of steel for iron. Within four or five years the engineer's lathe has been wholly remodelled to enable it to cope with the increased duties which have been imposed by these tools.

Not only has every detail been stiffened, but the elementary design has been greatly remodelled, chiefly in the substitution of the all-geared head for the series of belt-driven cones. The difference may perhaps be best put thus—that taking lathes, say, which five years ago required from 3 h.p. to 5 h.p. to drive them, require, though now used for work of the same capacity, from 30 h.p. to 50 h.p. These tools and lathes have profoundly affected the practice of the machine shops all over the world.

COASTGUARDS.

The Coastguard, as it has been known for so long, is threatened. And it is the Navy which has caused the changes to be suggested.

The Admiralty is of opinion that all the **coastguard men should be transferred to the service afloat,** except 600 required for manning permanently the war signal and wireless telegraphy stations. Ashore the men are of no value for coast defence purposes.

The Admiralty thinks that the Board of Trade should be made responsible for the protection of the revenue, and that the duty should no longer fall upon the Navy.

The Board of Customs, after discussing these suggestions, is of opinion that **the protection of the revenue could be satisfactorily effected by the addition of 1,171 officers and men** to the existing Waterguard staff instead of the present Coastguard force of about 4,000.

Another result would be the transfer to the Board of Trade of the **life-saving services.**

PRICE OF ADMIRALTY.

Here is a return giving the number of ships and other craft of war which have been in accidents from January 1st, 1901, to May 27th, 1908, and what they cost us:

Number of H.M. ships which have been in accidents, 442.

Number of H.M. ships which have been totally lost, 16.

Original cost of ships which have been totally lost, including guns and naval ordnance stores, £1,951,974.

PILOTS.

Our pilots received £533,846 in 1906, office and other expenses in connection with the pilotage cost £77,964, and pensions and relief £20,260—a total of £632,070. This is not quite covered by the **pilotage-rates,** which produced £586,683 in 1906. Other receipts made up a total of £619,286.

LIGHTHOUSES.

To maintain our lighthouses and light-vessels, to keep up electrical communication with them, to maintain the buoys and beacons, to build new lighthouses, and to collect the light-dues, costs £475,224 (in 1906-7). But this cost is more than covered by the light-dues, which made up £536,835 out of a total of £546,695 in receipts.

LOSS OF LIFE.

The loss of life by wreck, drowning, or other accident at sea and in rivers and harbours in British sea-going merchant ships in 1907 was 1,286, of whom 1,181 were masters and seamen, and 105 passengers.

EMIGRANTS.

395,680 emigrants of **British and Irish origin** left the United Kingdom for countries out of Europe in 1907. There were 239,000 **foreigners** and others, making a **total emigration** from these shores of 634,949.

Of the British and Irish 212,672 went to **British Colonies,** and 183,008 to **foreign countries.**

The **number of immigrants** from ports out of Europe was 293,633.

PROGRESS OF THE MOTOR-CAR.

THE FUEL QUESTION: ROADS AND DUST.

The development of things mechanical does not go forward in a way precisely similar to the evolution of living beings.

In the latter case, it would seem, certain individuals of a genus—either because they possess or in order to attain specific superiority—push ahead of their fellows along a line of their own, and pursue that line until they have formed a fresh species. Mechanical improvement, on the contrary, comes about by the progressive spirits moving on a stage, and there tarrying while the slower overtake them, and then repeating the step and the wait, so that the entire body is advancing along the same line, with frequent halts.

Organisms seek perfection steadily on various lines; engineering science and practice follows its leaders jerkily. So the development of motors has been for the last two or three years more or less arrested. The pioneers produced cars which were much more silent, smooth, and trustworthy than any previously; they showed the practicability of six cylinders, of the live axle, of ball-bearings, of effective exhaust-boxes, of side-entrance and covered bodies; then they paused. The general body caught them up, so that now scarcely a modern car is sold that is not reliable and quiet.

The advantage of the best in these respects is but slight, and in some instances it is offset by a sacrifice of efficiency. Thus the time is ripe for a further stride, and the direction it will take will be towards a combination of the highest mechanical efficiency with the qualities already gained. Several of the more enterprising constructors have made a start.

Before considering what is to come, it will be well to understand the existing position. In 1901, when the YEAR BOOK was first issued, the present writer hazarded the total number of cars in use at 10,000, of which a couple of thousand might be in this country. **At the present moment there can be hardly less than 60,000 cars and auto-cycles in Great Britain.**

Eight years ago every make displayed clear individuality. Rival systems of construction were many. It was, for instance, by no means certain whether engines would be horizontal or vertical in the car of the future, whether they would be at the back or in front, whether their power would reach the wheels through belts or cogs. Not only are these points now (to all seeming finally) settled, but the actual pieces of metal employed are, many of them, of generally agreed size and shape, and not a few turned out in quantity by houses working for the trade; whilst where builders produce their own "parts," accurate standardisation is a condition of success.

Commercial competition has brought it about that motor manufacturing cannot be made to pay unless chassis can be put through the mills in large series all absolutely alike down to the most insignificant element. So complete is this method that during the past summer three cars of American construction were taken to pieces bit by bit, the hundreds of components thrown promiscuously in a heap, and three fresh cars assembled by men helping themselves at random from the pile. The "compôte de trois" was just as good as the original.

It is not meant that even at the stage now reached no questions remain open; but there is scarcely one of which the issue is not predetermined, unless unforeseen factors enter. An engine yielding a continuous turning movement (whether from six cylinders or otherwise), a rotating back axle, a metal clutch (whether single plate, multi-disc, or otherwise), ignition from magneto-machine at high voltage, forced lubrication of every bearing—these are features of construction that are not universal chiefly because stocks of other patterns await exhaustion.

Other questions, like those relating to wheels, whether wood or wire, whether themselves detachable or carrying detachable rims or flanges, may be more open; while in regard to some matters, like carburation, the inclination is perhaps towards setting aside a multitude of theoretic principles in favour of practically efficient and simple designs; and this tendency likewise is favourable to sameness and standardisation. The striving for accessibility has led to the disposition of the several elements of the car's construction, and also of the smaller components within the motor itself, according to one or other of stereotyped plans.

Side by side with such widely accepted design has come a universal improvement in the metallurgy of the subject; particular alloys, of more or less similar composition, being now employed for particular parts. The resistance of alloys to wear, strain, and crystallisation has been nicely calculated. In this last matter, and, indeed, in bringing all cars of good repute up to an approximate equality of design and workmanship, as well as of material, the free interchange of experience, so happily characteristic of the motor industry, has done much. The technical Press, the Institution of Automobile Engineers, and the R.A.C. are valuable channels of communication.

A period of collective effort after refinement seems this autumn to be ending, and a time of fresh invention to be at hand. Writing before the annual exhibitions, it is not easy to feel sure to what extent the movement of the pioneers will be taken up. The business branch of a firm must often rightly check the aspirations of the mechanical department. Large changes need long preparation. But it is certain that the buying public, who ultimately decide, are not unwilling to welcome radical alteration.

Awhile ago they distinctly were so; but the successful introduction of Mr. C. Y. Knight's sliding-sleeve engine, both at home and abroad, has spread a conviction that the outline of the explosion motor is not, after all, incapable of beneficial revision. Departures in design, which, during the past few years (that is, since the era of empiricism passed away), would have stood no chance of acceptance, may in the approaching period be judged fairly upon their merits, and may even as departures be of value to sales-managers.

The issue of the "four-inch" race has stimulated the public appetite for mechanical efficiency, however got, by a fortunate coincidence, just at this juncture.

The problem of the immediate future, then, will be to attain very much greater efficiency without sacrifice of steadiness, quietness, flexibility, capacity to run for extended spells without losing power, and final durability; against which qualities (or some, at least) high efficiency, in the sense of great extraction of energy from given quantity of fuel and weight of machinery, appears to militate.

So far as the factor of efficiency goes, recent advance has been surprising, as the following brake horse-power obtained from four four-inch cylinders at the various rates of revolution per minute will show: B.h.p. at 1,300 r.p.m., 62; at 1,400, 69; at 1,500, 76; at 1,600, 82; at 1,700, 88; at 1,800, 92; at 1,900, 95; and at 2,000, 97. The secret of such increased output is simply higher linear velocity of piston. In cases like that mentioned, this was gained by providing a throw of crank very little less than twice the measurement of the bore, and securing that it should turn at least as fast as cranks of about half the length had ordinarily turned before.

To secure this rapid revolution, the reciprocating parts were built extremely light, and the inlets and exhausts were formed unusually open, the piping being very free, and the valves in some instances being on top of the cylinder. The tendency of a lubricant under these conditions to fly off by the action of centrifugal force has on the Continent been met by trying castor-oil in place of the customary mineral oils, than which it is more clinging, although less suitable in some other respects.

In permitting a fairly long stroke with a high régime the novel system of sliding sleeves instead of poppet valves may be of value. Two cast-iron shells surround the piston, and are moved up and down through a very small distance by eccentrics with which their lower rim is in connection by a short rod, the eccentrics being driven through a chain at half the speed of the crankshaft. In both shells and in the cylinder-wall are apertures for inlet and exhaust on opposite sides, which are opened and closed at the correct intervals by the passing of the shells. As the ports can be made of any size up to the full area of the cylinder, the gases can be allowed to rush in and out within any desirable fraction of a second. And it is the time required for these operations which mostly regulates the revolution-speed of a motor.

Incidentally, there may be in this form of engine other advantages, such as greater controllability, silence, economy of negative work, independence of skilled care; and, in the hands of the public, drawbacks may appear which the prolonged tests of those who are constructing it have not so far revealed. But it would seem that, if no insuperable drawbacks are found, the design constitutes a step forward, because the cylinder-content can be used more often in a given time, just as that sort of railway coach is preferable for a busy line which can quickest be emptied and refilled with passengers.

This quality, however, of rapid intake and discharge would be of equal value if it were found ultimately that with the other desirable qualities a greater number of revolutions per minute should comport better than a greater travel per revolution. The question between the alternative methods of getting high piston-speed cannot be regarded as closed at the present stage. Ratio of bore to stroke must depend upon weight added per h.p. gained by increasing either.

Theoretically the factors are now tolerably well known; but in practice the best compromise has not been fixed. Should r.p.m. be carried higher, ball-bearings for the crank-shaft, the only plain bearings now left, will be more strongly indicated. Their possibility has already been shown in practice.

Looking to matters on a further horizon, **some modification (probably of the under-structure) of cars in order to minimise dust-raising is needed.** Little can be done here until more knowledge is gathered of the precise cause of the trouble, and particularly of the behaviour of the eddies in the wake of a fast vehicle. Kindred to this is the question of **wheel slip and jump** upon the road surface. That much tractive effort is wasted, and much destruction of the road wrought by the wheels not holding is certain. Close attention should be given to springing and suspension; shock-dampers only make the old-fashioned carriage springs somewhat less inadequate. On both these subjects scientific tests have been conducted, and are being continued.

Diminution by constructional change of the tendency to skid is rendered more urgent by probable legal restriction of studded tyres. No signs of this are to be seen, unless it be in the direction of front-wheel driving and braking, both of which have been proved experimentally to be workable. Rotary internal combustion engines hardly have reached that point, though one, at least, is hopefully approaching it. If the steam-engine of the future is not to be oscillating, neither is it likely that the petrol motor will be, in spite of theory.

The fuel question remains where it was. The Excise authorities declare themselves unable to facilitate the sale of denatured alcohol, and little further chemical or mechanical experience has been gained with either alcohol or paraffin as a substitute for petroleum spirit. Nor have benzol and the tar products been more generally introduced. On the other hand, petrol is being distilled abundantly, and new sources of supply are open to the market, such as the "Grosnyi." The price, consequently, has fallen, and there is no appearance of shortage in years to come.

The dust nuisance is in the province of civil rather than of mechanical engineering; since, if there is dust on the road, no fast carriage is likely ever to be designed that will not raise it at all. Surprising progress has been achieved.

During the driest period of last summer the **main highways of the county of Kent** were free practically from all annoyance; while the cost of the tar macadam used has been proved to be in the long run cheaper than maintenance of the former soft surface. Many miles of main road in other counties have been treated similarly. Nothing better than hot tar has been discovered. For a permanent job the metal is soaked in it before being laid;

as a palliative the tar is spread by machines during dry weather.

The cost of road upkeep has been rising steadily since 1896; but this is less due to motor-cars than is supposed, for, by 1903 (that is, before cars were numerous), it had gone, on a rough calculation, from £55 a mile to £70. Little had been spent since the coaching days, and renovation could be postponed no longer. **The International Road Congress,** called together in Paris by the French Government, marked an epoch in the restoration of road locomotion and transport.

The abuse of the road by the reckless minority is being checked by strong action on the part of the representative bodies of motorists.

The Automobile Association, through its patrols, and the Royal Automobile Club, through provincial clubs, are both acting in concert with the police. The recent circular of the President of the Local Government Board, calling attention to the sufficiency of the law as it stands, is felt by most motorists to be entirely reasonable and fair, and they are anxious to co-operate as far as may be in the suppression of the "road-hog" as a common foe.

The Motor Union is doing excellent duty in looking to the obstruction by other road-users of free passage; electric tram standards, level crossings, unattended horses, and all such matters are dealt with.

The industry in America, on the Continent, and in Britain, has passed through hard times, largely owing to financial conditions which have been alike everywhere. Many unstable firms have found the strain too great. On the other hand, strong concerns which have specialised have done exceedingly well. For example, the pioneer six-cylinder company can report a 30 per cent. increase of sales for the season.

ARUNDELL WHATTON.

ROADS AND RIGHTS OF WAY.

WEAR OF ROADS.

Mr. Tonman Mosley, the Chairman of the Buckinghamshire County Council, in a letter defending that county against the charge of extravagance, quotes some remarkable figures showing the effect of motor traffic upon the cost of road maintenance. He points out that during the six years ended March, 1907, the annual cost of rural main roads throughout England and Wales increased by £320,000, equal to 20 per cent. In the Home Counties, where the increase in self-propelled traffic has been greatest, the annual cost has, during the same period, grown as follows:

Berkshire ..	..£13,539	equal to	63 per cent.
Buckinghamshire	7,836	„	27 per cent.
East Sussex	.. 14,544	„	49 per cent.
Essex ..	.. 18,717	„	22 per cent.
Hampshire	.. 15,171	„	60 per cent.
Herts ..	.. 22,609	„	35 per cent.
Surrey	.. 21,946		77 per cent.

TRADE IN MOTOR-CARS.

The President of the Board of Trade stated, in October, 1908, that the total number of imported motor-cars consigned to the United Kingdom from foreign countries in 1907 was 4,791, of a declared value of £2,075,555. The value of parts and accessories of motor-cars consigned from foreign countries was £2,472,289. During the same year 2,318 British-made motor-cars were exported, valued at £857,647. The value of British-made parts and accessories exported was £467,311.

RIGHTS OF WAY.

Two interesting Bills to protect public rights of way were introduced into the Commons in 1908.

One, the **Public Rights of Way Bill,** of which the main provision is that public use of a way for twenty years shall be conclusive proof of its having been dedicated as a public highway, unless there is sufficient evidence arising during that period negativing the intention to dedicate it.

The **Access to Mountains and Moorlands Bill** proposes that no owner or occupier of uncultivated mountain or moor land shall be entitled to exclude any person from walking or being on such land for the purposes of recreation or scientific or artistic study, or to molest him in so walking or being; and in the event of proceedings being brought against such a person for trespass, it will be a sufficient defence that he was on such ground for such purposes, and did no special damage.

Both Bills passed the Second Reading, but were not proceeded with.

REGULATION OF SPEED.

To secure the safety of pedestrians using the highways and other public thoroughfares, especially of children, a Bill (No. 263) was introduced into the Commons in 1908, which proposed that "no person shall drive any vehicle in any populous place at a speed exceeding ten miles an hour, or exceeding six miles an hour at any dangerous crossing, or in default to fine them 20s. to £5 in the first case."

LONDON'S PASSENGERS.

There was an estimated population in London in 1907 of 7,217,939 persons.

The railways, trams and omnibuses carried this population 169·6 journeys each in 1907. This traffic was divided thus, the numbers representing the passengers by each:

Rail	363,794,894
Tram	585,695,285
'Bus	274,500,000
Total	1,223,990,179

THE ROAD PROBLEM.

MAKING ROADS: COST OF REPAIR.

The problem of our roads—how to make them, keep them, and preserve on them the common rights of all—grows in importance.

"**Our roads have been, and still are, one of the signs of the achievements accomplished by men since the day when they wore away the first footpath,**" declared M. Barlbon, the French Minister of Public Works, to the Road Congress in October, 1908. "By them they passed from clan to tribe, and from tribe to nation; thanks to them the most generous ideas are spreading all over the world. Make them durable, pleasing, and comfortable until neighbouring people learn to know each other better and better, and pursue with sanguine enthusiasm the task of reciprocal civilisation which will bring about the highest humanity."

The **International Road Congress** was itself an indication of the importance of the road, for M. Lethier, Inspector-General of Roads and Bridges, gave a presidential address in which he pointed out that 27 foreign governments, 56 French departments, 193 towns and villages, and 184 associations were represented, the total number of members of the Congress being 2,251. As an illustration of the importance of road problems, M. Lethier stated that, **taking only fourteen European States, he had estimated that their roadways had attained a length of 1,600,000 kilometres, and that they represented a value of at least 25,000,000,000 francs, and that their annual maintenance was not less than 800,000,000 francs.**

"The one outstanding feature of the Congress, however, to Englishmen at all events," says Mr. C. L. Freeston, in the "Car," "is the fact now definitely disclosed **that ours is absolutely the only civilised country which has neither a national road department nor makes any national grants towards the upkeep of the roads.** There are one or two other nations, such as Switzerland, which have no central road department, but even Switzerland makes Federal grants towards inter-cantonal highways. We ourselves, however, occupy a position of inglorious isolation, in that, as a nation, we do not even acknowledge the existence of our roads, and even Parliament has no power to deal with them unless by means of new legislation.

"If all the surveyors in England at the present moment were absolutely unanimous **as to what constituted the best type of road,** it would be entirely impossible for that ideal to be uniformly carried out without entailing an altogether non-uniform degree of expenditure. The situation, of course, is still further complicated by the fact that the various county councils have not only to consider the cost of constructing and maintaining good roads, but have further inequalities of expenditure to bear in their domains."

The Making of the Road.—The Congress passed these Resolutions on road-making:

(1) The Congress draws attention to the necessity for constructing the road foundation very carefully with the toughest material; this constituent of the road plays an important part as exerting a considerable influence on the wear and tear of the highway, as well as on the upkeep of its profile. While choosing the foundation system, the structure of the subsoil and that of the road as well as the character of traffic using the road are to be taken into account.

(2) The Congress is of the opinion that a foundation upon a 4-5 in. concrete course is especially to be recommended in carrying out paving even with large paving stones. In this case the stones are to be laid upon a thin sand cushion.

(3) The Congress thinks that it is desirable to continue and to extend the trials made to incorporate tar or bituminous products into the material of the surface with a view to arrive at some efficient and cheap methods of carrying on the work.

(4) The Congress recommends that a binder suited to the nature of the road material and reduced to a minimum should be used while the roller is pressing down the surface.

Cost of Road Repair.—Mr. G. Montagu Harris, Secretary to the County Councils Association, speaking at the Congress, said that:

"In the year 1905-6 **the county councils in England and Wales spent £2,529,137 on the maintenance, repair, and improvement of 27,556 miles of main roads,** of which 4,100 miles were in urban and 23,456 miles in rural districts. It is calculated that the average cost per mile of the roads repaired by the county councils themselves (mostly rural), was £73, while the average cost to the county councils of the roads repaired by urban district councils was £226 per mile, and by rural district councils £69 per mile. **The cost of the roads has steadily increased year by year,** and at an especially rapid rate during the last few years. It has been calculated that between the years 1896 and 1906 the cost of maintenance per mile has increased by 30·9 per cent. in the case of the rural main roads and by 9·4 per cent. in the case of the urban main roads."

Here are some figures quoted by Mr. W. Rees Jeffreys, showing the **extent and cost of roads in the United Kingdom and France.** England has no central or State Department for roads, but France has. In England and Wales the road authorities are the 1896 county councils and district councils.

Country.	Mileage (so far as known), 1905-6.	Total Annual Expenditure, 1905-6
	Miles.	£
England and Wales.	149,759	13,495,204
Scotland	24,615	1,220,503
Ireland .	54,064	1,174,941
France .	23,820 (routes nationales)	1,224,588 (routes nationales)

GERMAN v. ENGLISH RAILWAYS.

NATIONAL v. PRIVATE RAILWAYS.

The railway is a primary instrument of production, a chief engine of social change. The value of our lives and of our work largely depends upon the degree of locomotion which we possess. Bringing things together is the essence of industry; bringing people together is the essence of society.

Yet to-day, in the United Kingdom, the railway is a luxury to the majority of our people. Poor people are rarely able to travel long distances. A small proportion are able occasionally to use packed excursion trains under conditions of extreme discomfort. Few of them are able to live at any considerable distance from their work, because railway journeys are so dear.

Even to the middle class a season-ticket is such a formidable item that it is only the minority of London clerks or small business men who dare live fifteen or twenty miles out. Thus, the railway fare—or, as I prefer to call it, the railway tax—has a profound influence upon society, upon home-making, upon health, upon life itself. Our people are locked into towns by the railways instead of being spread out over wide and healthy acres.

The influence of dear railways upon trade is equally striking. To assemble the materials of production in the United Kingdom is an expensive process—so expensive that our industries are hampered in a marked degree by the charges for freight. The goods made, excessive charges again stand in the way of their sale.

Why is it that the nation whose genius conferred the boon of railways upon the world is thus handicapped in the use of its own proud invention? The answer is to be found in the worship of the policy of laissez faire by our statesmen, and the failure to realise the profound importance of railways. It was held that the whole duty of government was to let severely alone trade and the machinery of trade, and the construction and control of these most important of the public roads of the nation, was resigned to private hands. It was forgotten that those who held the roads could determine the development of the people who used the roads. It was forgotten that to allow private toll-collectors to carry on their trade on British main roads was to resign national development to persons seeking private gain.

The history of British railway building is an unhappy story. Hundreds of millions were squandered in the greedy conflicts of landlords and speculators, while hundreds of millions more have been added to nominal capital by watering stocks. Having a largely fictitious capital o nearly £1,300,000,000, the railways now tell the British public that their earnings are very small because they can only pay a small all-round dividend on the £1,300,000,000. Of course the dividend is small. But the profits are not small. On the contrary, they amount to a sum as large as one-third of our Imperial revenue. Here is the record for 1906:

Received from the British public:		
(a) From passengers		49,900,000
(b) „ Goods traffic.. ..		58,400,000
(c) „ Boats, canals, harbours, etc... ..		4,800,000
(d) „ Rents, hotels, etc.		4,100,000
		117,200,000
Working Expenses (of which local rates were only £5,000,000) ..		72,700,000
Net profit for year		£44,500,000

The profit of £44,500,000 a year is a princely sum, but the fictitious capital is so great that the dividends are small.

Cannot a great nation do better than this with its chief public roads? For answer let us turn to **Germany**, where, long ago, statesmen recognised that it was not wise to resign national highways to private profit-makers. I take Prussia, the chief German state, alone, because its railway mileage is almost the same as our own, and its population very little different from our own in point of number. The contrast between the British and German figures is most striking:

	Britain.	Prussia.
Mileage	23,000	21,00
Capital employed	£1,286,900,000	£437,700,000
Net profits per annum	£44,500,000	£33,500,000
Net profits per cent. of capital employed ..	3·4	7·5

It is a contrast very much to the disadvantage of our private railways.

While British fictitious railway capital amounts to £1,283,900,000, Prussia's real capital amounts to only £437,700,000. Yet the Prussian railway stations are vastly superior to ours—palaces against barns.

While the British net profits of £44,500,000 go into private pockets, Prussia's net profits of £33,500,000 go into the Treasury, reducing taxation pro tanto. Yet Prussian fares and Prussian freight charges are lower than ours. The Prussians have really no national debt, because the railway profit pays all the interest on it and the sinking fund charges, with a balance over in relief of taxation.

And that is but the beginning of the story. It is not merely that the Prussian national railways make lower ordinary charges. They serve the German people in a thousand ways.

Unemployment, for Example.—An unemployed workman looking for work can use the national railway at a nominal charge—a great gain to himself and the public at large.

Defence, for Example.—The Prussian national railways are at the disposal of the nation which owns them. Here every soldier, every ton of material, has to pay toll, as in the South African War, to the private monopolists.

Post Office, for Example.—The Prussian national railways facilitate postal communication at the bare cost of working. Here the

National Post Office is under tribute to the private monopolists for every letter or card or parcel carried.

Agriculture, for Example.—In times of distress the Prussian national railways are called in to help, specially low freight charges being granted, while in every way the promotion of agriculture is studied. Here the private railways make the farmer "stand and deliver," and even favour foreign produce at his expense.

Exports, for Example.—In Prussia, the railways are used as the handmaiden of trade, and exporters are assisted to capture new markets. Here the British trader groans under excessive charges and large and small tyrannies.

Generally, the methods of our railways amount to **Protection for the foreigner.** Free Traders and Protectionists alike usually overlook this. Free Traders boast of our absence of import duties on materials, but they forget that the private railway's carrying-tax is just as effective as a barrier, and much less defensible than a State custom duty. Protectionists talk of protecting British manufacturers against foreign competition, but they forget that foreign competition is aided in an extraordinary degree by the disabilities imposed upon the British trader every time he buys or sells.

Obviously, comp[illegible] absurd. How ridiculous it is, for example, that at Croydon, near London, there should be two stations side by side, called by differ[illegible] names, and used by different companies! If [illegible]r ticket to London is taken by [illegible] of the companies, you may not use it to travel by the train of the other company. That is a sample of the childish follies and inconveniences which abound up and down what, with grave irony, we call our railway "system."

Lord Allerton, Chairman of the Great Northern Railway, in recommending his shareholders to "combine" with the Great Western, last year, said:

"If you go through the streets of London you will see—say, in Shaftesbury Avenue—the Great Northern Railway have opened a receiving office, and you will see a minute afterwards that the Great Central have opened a receiving office on the other side of the street. Take the case of capital expenditure. Why, there is a mine of wealth there! During the past few years there has been, I will say, hundreds of thousands of pounds spent in capital expenditure by the two companies which might have been saved if this agreement had been made so many years ago, such as in reaching the collieries and in what is called protecting the traffic by making fresh branches, all to be worked over the same point for the same traffic. All this necessitates engines and trains where very often one would do. You can hardly conceive the disadvantages that exist by two unnecessary and separate train services, not always taking the shortest road, not always making connection at a particular junction so that trains may meet, and very often making the arrangement such that they shall not meet. I know as a matter of fact that this is the case."

By amalgamating all our railway companies under State control, **an enormous saving could be made.** Past combination has reduced the number of great railway companies to only twenty-seven, which between them control nine-tenths of the whole system. Economic combination should reduce these to one control, and that control must, of course, be public.

The practical details of the transfer would not be very difficult, nor would they involve the raising of public funds. All that is necessary is to pay out the present proprietors in public stock, a far better security than they now hold. The operation would not be dissimilar, either in nature or degree, to that by which the late Lord Goschen converted the National Debt when he dealt with £600,000,000 of Consols.

Here is a tentative proposal. Taking the railway profit (£44,500,000) at twenty-five years' purchase, we get £1,112,000,000. Adding, say, £40,000,000 for non-dividend stocks, we get £1,152,000,000.

If the railway shareholders were paid this sum in Government stock at par, bearing 3½ per cent. interest for ten years, and 3 per cent. interest thereafter, the immediate payment of interest would amount to £40,000,000 per annum, which, after ten years, would be reduced to about £34,000,000 per annum.

At once charges could be reduced, therefore, apart from the question of economy from combination. But large economies would be certain, and out of them would proceed such a reduction of rates and increase of facilities as would produce a great increase of traffic and swelling of profits. The interest of the railways [illegible] with the public interest, every [illegible]nt of the nation would gain, whether as tax-[illegible]yer, as traveller, or as trader. L. G. C. M.

LONDON'S CARRIAGES.

During 1907, licences were issued in respect of public carriages as follows:

5,952	Hansom cabs.
3,866	Four-wheeled cabs.
723	Motor cabs.
2,557	Horse-drawn omnibuses.
1,205	Motor omnibuses.
404	Horse-drawn tramway cars.
1,768	Mechanical tramway cars.
Total 16,475	

This, in comparison with the numbers licensed in 1906, shows a net decrease of 161 carriages, made up as follows:

Decrease.	
Hansom cabs	696
Horse-drawn omnibuses	407
Horse-drawn tramway cars ..	501
Total	1,604
Increase.	
Four-wheeled cabs	22
Motor cabs	627
Motor omnibuses	422
Mechanical tramway cars ..	372
Total	1,443

Our Drivers.—11,592 drivers for horse cabs were licensed in 1907, and 818 for cabs with mechanical power. In addition, 4,333 stage drivers for horse buses, and 4,716 for mechanical-power buses were licensed. Of 177 men tested as to their driving abilities in 1907, 29 failed as respect horse cabs, and 177 passed; 713 passed as regards motor cabs, and 731 failed; 211 passed as regards horse omnibuses, and 57 failed as regards motor omnibuses; 807 passed as regards motor buses, and 755 failed.

THE RAILWAY CRISIS.

THE NEW POLICY OF RAILWAY CO-OPERATION.

It is acknowledged on all sides that British railways have reached a critical stage. For the **first time in their history a period of great commercial expansion has come and gone without the railway shareholders getting the slightest share of its benefits.** In 1907, which was an exceptional year of abundant trade prosperity, railways performed in all branches of traffic greater services to the public than in any previous year, and they earned a larger revenue than ever before. But, owing to the crushing increase in working expenditure—mainly coal and wages—the companies, taken in block, really **lost about £130,000 on the year's results.**

A great **decline in traffic receipts** was experienced during 1908. The **aggregate decline of fifty principal railways was £1,208,712 for the first twenty-six weeks,** and £405,978 for the following eight, making £1,614,690 for less than two-thirds of the year. We have to go back to 1893 to find the record of any decline at all. Declines also occurred in 1885, 1884, 1879, and 1878, each of which years corresponded with great depression in trade, but none amounted to so much as two millions, which sum had been exceeded by £45,000 with the week ending October 25th, 1908.

The panacea that most commends itself to the captains of the railway industry is the adoption of a policy of co-operation among companies possessing more or less identical interests. The movement towards co-operation has been the principal topic of interest in financial and railway circles throughout the past year.

All the important railway companies of to-day have been formed by the gradual fusion of greater or smaller independent undertakings, and though there are still some 250 separately constituted organisations dividing the ownership of the 23,000 miles of the British railway system, the bulk of it has long been concentrated in the hands of a score of great companies.

It has always been open to railway companies to insure themselves against mutual attacks by means of rate conferences, working agreements, and "pooling" traffic to and from competitive points. These methods of combination, which, of course, are powerless to infringe statutory obligations, have become much more generally practised of late years. But when it is sought to extend the scope of co-operation to the amalgamation of two or more railway companies under one system of administrative and financial control, provision being made for the division of the net profits on some definite plan, or to the working of the allied undertakings by each other's locomotives and rolling-stock, as may be most convenient, **the sanction of Parliament must be obtained.**

Hitherto the Legislature has discountenanced such proposals when emanating from the greater organisations. It has clung to the security contemplated by the founders of our railway system—viz., by the maintenance of competition the large companies were expected to keep each other in order, and the nation was to get the benefit of their rivalry, without the obnoxious exercise of State control.

In fact, the only **amalgamation of two large railway companies so far permitted is the working union between the South Eastern and Chatham,** which was authorised in 1899. **These** two companies hold all their property in common, and are controlled by a joint committee, though they retain separate constitutions **for** certain very limited purposes.

Although at the end of 1906 **an important working agreement was concluded between the London & North Western and Lancashire & Yorkshire Companies,** the beginning of the present remarkable movement towards co-operation was the **projected complete amalgamation of the Great Northern and Great Central Companies,** whose systems overlap to an unparalleled degree, which was announced in the last week of November, 1907.

This scheme, however, failed to receive the ratification of the Railway Commissioners, preparatory to the introduction of a Bill to carry it into effect. The proposal was deemed ultra vires. Accordingly, a fresh scheme, to which **the adhesion of the Great Eastern Railway** also was obtained, was formulated. It is the intention, if the necessary sanction of Parliament be obtained, to bring the three systems under one management, provision being made for the division of the net profits on some definite plan.

Co-operation in working has already been introduced, as, for example, by the inter-availability of tickets, which, of course, spells a traffic pool; the closing of a number of receiving offices; and (since October 1st) the institution of a joint Great Northern and Great Central express train service between London and Manchester, composed of fewer and slightly slower trains than when these companies were rivals.

In August it was announced that **the London & North Western and Midland Railways had concluded an arrangement** which will, it is hoped, be the "means of enabling considerable economy in works to be effected, while at the same time the public will obtain the advantage of increased facilities for passenger and merchandise traffic. The compact referred to will not, however, require Parliamentary sanction." This arrangement is at present confined to embrace the traffic of the two companies to and from leading centres in the Midlands and North, but it will probably be extended to the Anglo-Irish and, perhaps, to the Anglo-Scottish of both.

Following upon this latter alliance, a host of rumours as to other impending co-operative schemes was published; but, while admitting that all the companies have realised that it is impracticable for them to pursue the old course of "beggar-my-neighbour," it must be confessed that any further compacts are as yet non-existent, among English railways at least.

A very comprehensive working arrangement has, however, been arrived at between the three great Scotch lines—the Caledonian, North British, and Glasgow & South Western. By it a number of superfluous trains and steamboats has been withdrawn, specified traffic

areas assigned to each company, and a revision of unduly low excursion and week-end fares taken place. The importance of the arrangement for the alternate running from Euston, King's Cross, and St. Pancras of the Inverness sleeping-car during the winter has been exaggerated. The Highland Company long clamoured for this reform, objecting to hauling these empty saloons from Perth to Inverness, where one would suffice. Otherwise, there is no combination of all the companies interested in the Anglo-Scottish traffic.

The public mind is still much in the dark as to the real aims of railway co-operation, or, rather, as to the means whereby economies are to be effected. The point must be emphasised that the great savings lie purely in a commercial direction. Co-operation enables companies to appoint joint goods-agents, to curtail canvassing, to send traffic by the shorter routes, and to broaden the burden of collection and delivery among themselves. Co-operation does not mean that they will cease to give the travelling public the elaborate facilities, the luxurious and expensive rolling-stock and station accommodation, to which the latter have grown accustomed.

There is some misapprehension about the running of alleged superfluous trains by the rival routes between places like London and Manchester, and of trains far heavier and longer than are required to accommodate the passengers travelling in them. Concerning the first contention, if the trains carried nothing but through traffic between these two places, a reduction in their number could doubtless be effected; but it must be remembered that the North Western, Midland, Great Northern, and Great Central routes serve various different intermediate places, which require communication with both Manchester and London. Co-operation does not get away from the fact that these places must be provided for, hence there could be little decrease of train mileage, even though the number of nominally through trains were reduced.

The London & North Western Railway and Midland Railway agreement has only led to the knocking off of one London-Manchester express by each company; while the Great Northern Railway and Great Central Railway, joint curtailment, already alluded to, is practically confined to the Sheffield-Manchester section of the route, which is common to both.

Concerning the second contention, managers cannot dictate **the ebb and flow of traffic at different seasons of the year.** In the summer, the great stream of traffic is from the towns, and the carriages must be got back to them somehow, though comparatively few persons are travelling in the latter direction.

The great body of railway servants are timorous of the movement towards co-operation. They see that it is not made with a view to benefiting the workers. The railway managers have disavowed any intention of carrying out drastic staff reductions or curtailing privileges, but they have hinted that their principle in the past to endeavour to make service permanent may have to be abandoned. One or two companies have given long notice of wages reductions to come into force on January 1st, 1909, and have pointed out that the Conciliation Boards, to which such questions may be referred, cut both ways—their scope is not limited to considering claims for increase wages and other improved conditions.

THE RAILWAY AMALGAMATIONS.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE RAILWAY SERVANTS.

The recent schemes of co-operation amongst railways and the fear of a railway trust is criticised in the following terms by the "Railway Review," which is the official organ of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants.

The possibility of a trust (it says) is a question of immense importance to the railwaymen of the country, and it will be the duty of the country and the Government to face the problem at the earliest possible moment, instead of drifting along as they are doing at the present time.

That there is a movement to create a gigantic railway trust or series of trusts we consider to be beyond question. That this movement may be intended as a counter-move to nationalisation or an attempt to compel the State to purchase at a high figure we can well believe. But that this movement is to be inaugurated by an attack on the employees of the companies and the withdrawal of facilities from the public we beg leave to honestly doubt.

If, however, this is the intention of the companies, then we venture to think they have started a movement which will end in their discomfiture; for what are the facts? **For good or for evil the companies in November, 1907, pledged themselves to a certain policy with regard to their employees in future which they cannot depart from unless the personal honour of the leading men in the railway world is to be dragged in the dust.**

In the settlement of November last the companies agreed not only to certain expressed provisions with regard to the future settlement of the question of hours and wages, but also to a policy. That policy was a policy of conciliation and arbitration.

That policy was agreed to and signed by Lord Stalbridge, Lord Allerton, Sir Ernest Paget, Sir C. B. Renshaw, Sir Alexander Henderson, and Lord Claud Hamilton, and with the carrying out of that policy is bound up the personal honour of the gentlemen named.

It may be well to remind the general public what that agreement actually states. It begins by saying that the undersigned duly authorised representatives of the railway companies named below declare that **they are prepared on their behalf to adopt a system of conciliation and arbitration for the settlement of questions relating to the rates of wages and hours of labour of various classes of their employees on the general lines of the scheme appended to this agreement.**

The list of railways which follows this announcement contains the names of eleven of the principal railways of the country. The scheme itself sets out "boards to be formed for each railway company which adheres to the scheme to deal with questions referred to them either by the company or its employees, relating to the rates of wages and hours of labour of any class of employees to which the scheme applies which cannot be mutually settled through the usual channels.

We wish to draw special attention to the words "**which cannot be mutually settled.**" These words imply that in future no rates of wages and hours of labour which are not mutually agreed upon either through the Boards of Conciliation, or which have not been sanctioned by an arbitrator, can be the recognised rates or hours on any of the railways which have come into the scheme. Any departure from this policy is a breach of a solemn compact and understanding arrived at in conjunction with the State Department.

We gladly admit that up to the present in most instances there has been **no sign of any desire to depart from the agreement, but there are certain under-currents at work which are inimical to the continued success of the agreement,** and it would, therefore, be a great gain at the present juncture if the companies would definitely state what their policy is to be. It will, of course, be necessary to judge them by their actions rather than by their words. In any case the employees must be wide awake to the possibilities of the future, and ready to meet whatever policy may ultimately be developed. For our own part, we again assert that we do not believe that an agreement so solemnly entered into will be thus lightly set aside.

RAILWAY MEN'S HOURS.

Here is a table, given by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, which shows the number of days exceeding twelve hours by one hour or more that the several grades of railway men worked in 1907 and 1908. The tendency is downwards.

Grade.	1907	1908.
Passenger guards and brakesmen.	2,811	2,083
Passenger enginemen	3,220	2,231
Goods guards and brakesmen	5,178	2,020
Goods enginemen	24,385	6,984
Signalmen..	1,544	1,034
Examiners	563	393

The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants passed this resolution concerning their hours of work (October, 1908):

"That this Congress appreciates the successful efforts of the Board of Trade in securing the reduction of the inhuman excessive hours worked daily by trainmen during recent years, but would remind the Department that excessive hours continue to be worked weekly as a result of the methods adopted by the companies in calling men out immediately after the minimum period allowed for rest has elapsed, thereby causing them to work seven and eight shifts, or eighty hours and upwards, per week; and this Congress is also of opinion that the maximum of twelve hours set up in 1893 is too long, and that a ten-hour day ought not to be exceeded, and instructs its Parliamentary representatives to initiate fresh legislature giving the Board of Trade the necessary powers to deal with the present evil."

RAILWAY NATIONALISATION.

Mr. W. Thorne, M.P., has introduced a Bill nto the Commons with the following objects:

(1) To confer upon the Local Government Board powers to acquire the ownership of canals and railways.

(2) To confer upon the Local Government Board certain powers of user of the property so acquired, and for leasing thereof.

(3) To prevent the aforesaid property falling into private ownership again.

The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants carried (October, 1908) a resolution **in favour of the Nationalisation of Railways** by 56 votes to 2:

"This conference is of opinion that the time has arrived when the railways should be acquired by the State. The privileges granted by Parliament to the railway companies have, in many ways, always been violated; in addition, the methods adopted in preferential rates are crippling our home industries in favour of foreign imports. The combination of the companies is a further menace to British trade, and a step which may lead to low wages and long hours. In the interests of all concerned, it is essential that the railways, like the Post Office, should be run for the nation's welfare, and not for dividends and profits."

The speaker said: "What they wanted was more time to live and more opportunity to enjoy the fruits of their labour."

Sir George Gibb, the well-known railway manager, says that he would prefer "a system of well-regulated monopoly, even in the guise of State ownership of railways, rather than the half-hearted and imperfect railway competition which exists in England. He does not believe in any danger of such change coming by "confiscation of existing rights," but he fears that "the existence of such an enormous amount of Government patronage would open the door to political corruption."

A society to promote the nationalisation of railways has been formed. **Secretary: Mr.** F. W. Galton, 5, Duke Street, Adelphi.

ROTHERHITHE TUNNEL.

The opening of the Rotherhithe Tunnel by the Prince and Princess of Wales, on June 12th, aroused only a transient interest. Brunel's tunnel was considered one of the wonders of the world; yet the Rotherhithe is the thirteenth which has been driven under the Thames, and the largest. It occupied four years in the making, cost £1,088,481 to build, and this, with the amounts paid for the purchase of property, brought the total cost up to about £2,000,000.

RAILWAY STATISTICS.

SOME COMPLAINTS BY SHAREHOLDERS.

There are 23,108 miles of railway line in the United Kingdom. Of this 12,845 miles is **double** or more track. The **number of passengers** carried in 1907 was 1,259,481,000, excluding season-ticket holders. The **weight of minerals carried in** 1907 was 407,601,000 tons, **and of merchandise** 108,286,000 **tons.**

The **gross receipts** from all the traffic was **£112,178,174,** while other receipts made it **up to £121,548,923. The receipts per train mile** were **62·85d., or £4,854 per mile of line open.**

Against **this has** to be set the **working expenditure** of £76,609,194, leaving **net receipts** of **£44,939,729. The proportion of working expenditure to gross receipts** was 63 per cent.

The **passenger traffic** brought in £50,975,343, and the **goods traffic** £61,202,831.

It is interesting to compare these items with the **figures** for 1893. The passenger traffic in 1893 brought in £35,849,449, £15,000,000 less than to-day, while the **goods traffic** produced £40,994,637, or £20,000,000 less than to-day.

It is estimated that the waggons belonging to railway companies number 750,000, and to private owners 650,000; total, 1,400,000. The number of carriages and vehicles used on passenger trains is 70,500.

RAILWAY FINANCE.

The paid-up capital of all the railways of the United Kingdom, including nominal additions and capital raised for the purpose of other undertakings in 1907, amounted to £1,294,066,000, and **earned an average dividend** of 3·44 per cent. In 1903 the capital was £971,323,000, and earned 3·74 per cent.

The total stock, in 1907, was divided up thus:

	£
Ordinary	489,189,000
Preferential	336,936,000
Guaranteed ..	121,945,000
Loans	12,053,000
Debentures . ..	333,943,000
Total	£1,294,066,000

The Railway Shareholders' Association have complained to Mr. Winston Churchill of their grievances. They said that:

"Traffic had increased by leaps and bounds, but there had been little or **no addition to dividends.** The preliminary summary of the railway returns for 1907 showed a gain of £4,252,000 in gross receipts, and an increase of £3,824,000 in working expenses. The net gain of £428,000 barely sufficed to meet the extra charges on new capital issued during 1906, amounting to over £13,000,000. While the service rendered by the railways to the country surpassed all previous records, the shareholders found themselves worse rather than better off.

"In consequence **railway securities of all kinds continued to decline.** In the past ten years they had undergone a depreciation without precedent in this or any other country. That depreciation had been calculated at 350 millions sterling on an average total of 1,200 millions sterling. Thus, the loss had been from 30 to 35 per cent. all round. In the same decade the railway securities of most other countries had doubled or trebled in market value.

"One of the public causes which aggravated the depression of the railway interest was the heavy and **inequitable taxation of railway earnings.** Imperial and local taxation together now averaged more than 17 per cent. of the net earnings of the railways. The principal items were—local rates, £5,000,000; passenger duty, £350,000; income tax on net revenues of forty-five millions sterling, £2,000,000; total, £7,350,000. But local rates and passenger duty fell exclusively on the ordinary stock, of which there was only 486 millions sterling. Its share of the net earnings was only about sixteen millions sterling, on which £5,350,000 of local rates and passenger duty represented exactly 33 per cent.

"Then, with regard to the **demands of the railway servants.** In 1906 the wages paid by fifteen leading companies were £26,338,000, or an increase of £6,427,000 in ten years—equal to about 32½ per cent. During the same ten years the net earnings of the whole of the railways of the United Kingdom rose by only £4,520,000, or 11 per cent."

TRAMWAYS.

The annual return of capital and traffic of tramways and light railways (street and road) for 1906 7 shows that since the year 1878 **the route length of line open for traffic** has increased from 269 miles to 2,394 miles; the capital expenditure from £4,207,350 to £64,092,091; the number of passengers **carried** from 146 millions to 2,455 millions; and the net receipts from £230,956 to £4,485,413.

Their **gross receipts** were £11,849,175, and their **working expenses** £7,363,762. The **capital invested** was £6,4275,076—about one-twentieth of the whole capital of our railways.

Of the total of 1,571 miles of line **owned by local authorities,** 1,422 miles are worked by those authorities themselves, and the remaining 149 miles by leasing companies. Last year the route mileage open of **electric line** was 1,994 miles out of a total of 2,240; this year it is 2,195 miles out of 2,394. The mileage worked otherwise than by electric traction has further diminished from 246 miles to 199 miles.

TELEGRAPHS.

There are **56,537 miles of telegraph line** belonging to the General Post Office, with a wire length of 806,903 miles. There are 13,073 **post offices,** and 113,504 **telegraph instruments** in use.

The number of telegrams sent was 93,771,000 in 1907, and of these 80,346,000 were **inland,** and 13,425,000 **foreign.**

The telephone at the General Post Office has **53,511 subscribers, and had** 19,803,363 **trunk** calls.

THE RAILWAY WORLD.

NEW SCHEMES COMPLETED AND PROPOSED.

Some of the new railway schemes recently completed or proposed are here set out.

The New Victoria.—The rebuilding of Victoria terminus (Brighton Company), which has been in progress for seven years, and has involved an expenditure of upwards of a million sterling, was completed on July 1st. The new station covers 16 acres, whereas the old covered only 8½ acres, and has 2¼ miles of platforms.

Britain's Leviathan Locomotive.—The first "Pacific," or 4-6-2, type of locomotive to be introduced on a British railway was an important event in engineering circles. As foreshadowed in the 1908 edition, the Great Western Railway was responsible for the experiment. "**The Great Bear**," as this remarkable engine is christened, is far and away the largest and most powerful ever built in this country. It is furnished with four high-pressure cylinders, which are supplied by superheated steam.

This huge engine has a total weight of 97 tons, while the tender weighs nearly 46 tons in addition. The outstanding features of the design are enormous and well-arranged steam generating capacity, flexibility of wheel-base, ample cylinder capacity, and well distributed axle loads, together with large adhesion weight.

ELECTRIC RAILWAYS.

Electric operation began, on April 13th, on the branch of the **Midland Railway connecting Heysham, Morecambe, and Lancaster.** This is the first railway in the country to be equipped for electric traction on the single-phase alternating current system, with overhead equipment. The total length of single road is 21 miles, and the special rolling stock consists of 3 motor-coaches and 6 motors.

The electrification of the Brighton Company's South London line on the same system (in the choice of which they were the pioneers), has been delayed by the exceptional difficulties of the task. Although the distance between London Bridge and Victoria is only 8 miles, 25 miles of complicated track have to be equipped, while the company are providing 8 trains and 64 motors. It is hoped to begin experimental running with the electric trains very shortly, and to institute a regular service early in 1909.

There will then be **two single-phase lines at work in this country,** and the great controversy that has been raging between the exponents of that system and of the continuous-current-*cum*-third rail system should very soon be decided by the test of actual results. This will put an end to the state of suspended animation in which the electrification of railways has remained for some time.

Owing to the serious decrease of traffic receipts caused by the suspension of through running, the six companies controlling the **East London Railway,** whose mileage of five extends from Liverpool Street to New Cross, have ordered a report on the electrification of the line. The system of electric traction to be adopted would be the continuous current, as applied to the connecting Metropolitan-District lines.

TUBE RAILWAYS.

No new tube railway project applied for Parliamentary powers in 1908, and the evolution of the existing system has been fully dealt with in prior editions.

The City & South London Railway abandoned all intention of proceeding with the authorised City to Brixton branch, 4 miles in length.

Renewed attempts are being made to secure the construction of the **North West London Tube Railway from Cricklewood to Victoria.** Part of this scheme was originally authorised in 1899. Two years ago, Parliament sanctioned the extension to Victoria, and gave the promoters until 1910 in which to complete the whole. A fresh proposal is further to extend this tube to the Crystal Palace, via Peckham, Forest Hill, and Upper Sydenham.

The London & North Western Railway decided not to proceed with the construction of the **Euston & Watford Electric Railway** (sanctioned 1907), which includes 2¾ miles of tube, until money-market conditions were more favourable.

Neither the authorised **North-East London Tube** (for route see 1906 edition), nor the extension of the **Great Northern & City to Lothbury** has been begun. The former undertaking was granted a further extension of time in which to raise half the authorised share capital, and received warning that this must be the last application.

A scheme for a **tube railway between Blackpool and Southport and the Isle of Man** is mooted—the submarine section to "lie serenely and securely on the smooth bed of the Irish Sea."

"Underground" Train Service Improvements.—Non-stop trains were inaugurated on the Wimbledon section of the District Railway in February. On October 1st, the train service on the District and Metropolitan Railways, and on the Bakerloo and Piccadilly Tubes was greatly augmented, especially during the "rush" hours. The maximum hourly number of trains on the District between South Kensington and Mansion House was raised to 34, a world's record for train movement over one road, and the 10-car trains instituted on the Whitechapel, Barking, and East Ham lines are the longest multiple-unit electric trains in the world.

NEW RAILWAY SCHEMES.

The only new railway of importance opened in 1907 was the **Great Western line between Tyseley, near Birmingham, and Stratford-on-Avon,** by means of which a new through express service between the Midlands and the West of England—Wolverhampton to Penzance, and vice versâ—was established on July 1st.

The more important schemes due for completion in 1909 are as follows :

Great Northern Railway.—Loop line, Enfield to Stevenage via Hertford. The total length is 10½ miles, and it will afford an alternative route, thereby saving the widening of the main line, including five tunnels of a total length of 3,300 yards, and the Welwyn Viaduct, 522 yards long. The first contract for a length of 5 miles due north of Enfield, with stations at Gordon Hill, Crews Hill, and Cuffley, will be opened early in the year.

Great Western Railway.—Ashendon to Aynho line, 19 miles in length. This line will give the Great Western Railway a much shorter route between London and Birmingham, viz., 112 miles instead of 129¼ miles, via Oxford.

A project for the **extension of the District Company's Putney and Wimbledon branch** to Sutton, via Merton and Morden, 4¾ miles in length, has been discussed.

The Midland Railway has let the contract for the construction of a new line from Mirfield to Huddersfield, some 4½ miles in length, which is to give the company direct access of its own to an important industrial district.

THE RAILWAY ARMY.

Census of Railway Employees.—During 1907, at the time of the railwaymen's agitation, many varying estimates were made as to the total number of employees, the last official figures available being those for 1901, which totalled 575,834. **The aggregate of 621,341, revealed by the Board of Trade census** at the end of 1907, shows a considerable increase. The following table classifies this total under the chief grades:

Engine-drivers and motormen ..	28,141
Firemen	25,714
Goods-guards and brakesmen ..	16,786
Passenger-guards	8,474
Signalmen	28,658
Pointsmen	745
Shunters	13,158
Permanent-way men	67,184
Permanent-way inspectors	1,145
Other inspectors	8,084
Ticket collectors and examiners ..	4,163
Station-masters	8,688
*Porters	56,402
Policemen	2,127
*Engine-cleaners	21,458
*Carmen and van-guards, &c. ..	24,256
*Carriage cleaners and examiners ..	10,720
Men and women clerks	58,503
Boy and girl clerks (under 18) ..	10,672
*Labourers	59,812
*Mechanics and artisans	93,797
*Miscellaneous	33,083

* Including persons under 18 years of age.

THE CANAL COMMISSION.

Lord Shuttleworth is chairman of a Royal Commission which is sitting to inquire into the Canals and Inland Navigation of the United Kingdom, and to report on:

(1) Their present condition and financial position;

(2) The causes which have operated to prevent the carrying out of improvements by private enterprise, and whether such causes are removable by legislation;

(3) Facilities, improvements, and extensions desirable in order to complete a system of through communication by water between centres of commercial, industrial, or agricultural importance, and between such centres and the sea;

(4) The prospect of benefit to the trade of the country compatible with a reasonable return on the probable cost; and

(5) The expediency of canals being made or acquired by public bodies or trusts, and the methods by which funds for the purpose could be obtained and secured; and what should be the system of control and management of such bodies or trusts.

Here are some statistics regarding the Canals of the United Kingdom.

Canals and Navigation.	Length.	Total Capital paid up and raised.	Total Tons Conveyed.	Total Revenue.	Total Expenditure.	Net Profits.
	m. ch.	£		£	£	
Not belonging to railway companies in United Kingdom.	3,310 12¼	36,973,503½	28,945,517¼	2,037,187	1,408,231	628,956
Belonging to railway companies	1,144 68½	5,725,404	5,833,974¼	399,164	354,275	44,889
Railway-controlled canals.	4,673 40	47,550,768½	43,161,926¾	2,680,710	1,891,213	789,497

PENNY POSTAGE TO U.S.

The postage to the United States from this country was reduced to a penny per ounce from October 1st, 1908. Till then it was 2½d. per half-ounce. The change was effected by Mr. Sydney Buxton, the Postmaster-General. The cost of the change is put at £130,000.

A new parcels post rate to the United States was also introduced from July 1st. The rate for parcels not exceeding 3 lb. is 1s. 0d.; not exceeding 7 lb., 2s. 6d.; not exceeding 9 lb., 3s. 6d.; not exceeding 11 lb., 4s. 6d.

ALL-RED ROUTE.

The All-Red Route—a route for a mail and transportation service between Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, **across countries belonging to the British Empire only**—is still under discussion.

Sir Wilfred Laurier moved in the Canadian House of Commons that "this House affirms that Canada is prepared to assume her fair share of the necessary financial obligations; and that in the opinion of this House the Governments of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand should, with as little delay as possible, agree upon a definite plan."

LONDON'S TRAMWAYS.

LENGTH: PASSENGERS: FARES: COST.

The London County Council tramways extend over a **total length of 119 miles.** Of this about **67 miles is used for electric traction.**

Here is a summary of the chief traffic returns for the last two years as given by the chief tramway officer:

Items.	1906–7.	1907–8.
Total receipts.. ..	£1,414,604	£1,663,031
Traffic receipts ..	£1,378,014	£1,626,719
Passengers carried..	314,227,090	372,515,754
Mileage	30,130,297	35,561,189
Receipts per passenger.	1·05d.	1·05d.
Total receipts per car mile (horse)	10·13d.	9·35d.
Total receipts per car mile (electric)	12·23d.	11·95d.

The total traffic receipts from April 1st to October 24th, 1908, were £831,138 from lines worked by electric traction, and £172,583 from lines worked by horse traction, or a total **of £1,053,721.** The receipts for the corresponding period in 1907 under the same heads were £690,024, £244,995 and £935,019 respectively.

The cars ran 35,561,189 miles, and the number of passengers carried was 372,515,754, **the division between horse and electric traction being as follows:**

—	Miles.	Passengers.
Horse traction ..	9,970,161	93,349,293
Electric traction ..	25,591,028	279,166,461
Total ..	35,561,189	372,515,754

The cost of electric traction amounted to £724,381, or 6·79d. per car mile, which was less by ·27d. per mile than the previous year. **The cost of horse traction was 10·73d. a mile.** "The early electrification of the horse lines is necessary to insure the tramways being a financial success," says the chief officer.

The number of passengers and the fares they paid is here shown. The nimble penny is responsible for more than half, while the halfpenny fares are creeping up to one quarter. *The penny fares are fewer than in 1906–7, when they were 62·29 of the whole.*

Fare.	1907–8. Passengers.	Per cent.
	87,318,410	23·44
1d.	215,240,662	57·78
1½d.	33,221,997	8·92
2d.	23,598,512	6·33
2½d.	5,325,755	1·43
3d.	7,044,861	1·89
3½d.	633,636	·17
4d.	131,921	·04
Total	372,515,754	100·00

The total capital expenditure upon the tramway undertaking to 31st March, 1908 says the Comptroller), **amounts to £8,414,590 15s. 11d.,** of which £1,468,280 4s. 11d. **represents expenditure** during the year 1907–8.

The actual financial condition of the trams shown in the following statement **by the London County Council Comptroller:**

		£	s.	d.
Electric Traction.—The capital expenditure to March 31st, 1908, is as follows:				
Construction, reconstruction, and equipment of lines, power supply, etc. ..		5,845,859	7	0
*Transferred from horse traction in respect of reconstructed lines (see below)		419,567	12	7
		6,265,426	10	7
Horse Traction.—The capital expenditure to March 31st, 1908, is		2,568,731	8	11
Deduct—Transferred to electric traction as above ..	£419,567 12 7			
Transferred to Obsolete Account in pursuance of the Council minute of June 23rd, 1908 (see below) ..	1,030,510 10 7			
		1,450,078	3	2
Expenditure apportioned to lines operated by horse traction at March 31st, 1908		1,118,653		
Obsolete Capital Expenditure (Horse Traction).—The gross amount as ascertained up to March 31st, 1908, is shown in the balance-sheet at		1,030,510	10	7
Deduct—Sale of horses and old materials		51,666	15	8
		978,843	14	11
Deduct—Debt in respect of such capital repaid out of revenue ..		203,243	2	4
Obsolete capital not written off at March 31st, 1908		775,600	12	7

As electrification proceeds, further capital expenditure will be transferred from the horse traction capital account to the obsolete capital, and to electric traction for properties used for working that system, and for the residual value of horse tracks. **It is estimated that at March 31st, 1914, by which time practically all the horse lines will probably have been electrified, the debt outstanding on obsolete capital will be £961,954.** The Council has decided, subject to the approval, in due course, of His Majesty's Treasury, to provide for the repayment of all debt in respect of obsolete capital expenditure within a period of 15 years from March 31st, 1914.

Revenue Account.—The results of the year's working (1907–8) are as follows:

	Electric. £	s.	d.	Horse. £	s.	d.	Total. £	s.	d.
Receipts	1,274,660	5	7	388,371	10	8	1,663,031	16	3
Working expenses	724,381	10	0	445,734	2	2	1,170,115	12	2
Surplus on working	550,278	15	7	57,362 (deficiency)	11	6	492,916	4	1
Deduct—Charges against surplus on working, interest, &c.							447,510	0	5
Surplus balance carried to Appropriation Account							45,406	3	8
Add—Balance brought forward from the year 1906–7							5,923	1	11
Total surplus available on March 31st, 1908							51,329		

The whole of this sum has been carried to the Renewals Fund as on March 31st, 1908.

The Renewals Fund was £158,622 on March 31st, 1908.

The Council has approved two-thirds of a penny per car mile run as the basis of the provision to be made for such renewals as are not intended to be charged against the revenue of the year. This basis is to be reviewed after five years. Provisions for the year 1907–8 on this basis would necessitate the setting aside of £71,086, and similar provision in each year of the electrical working would, with accumulations, have amounted at March 31st, 1908, to £196,741 (£200,733 less expenditure £3,992), as compared with £158,622 in the Fund on that date, a shortage of £38,119, or if the £34,634 transferred to the General Reserve Fund be taken into account, the shortage is reduced to £3,485.

ATLANTIC RECORDS.

As was anticipated in our last edition, during 1908 **the great Cunarders, Lusitania and Mauretania, succeeded in eclipsing all previous records for the Transatlantic passage.** The fastest passages made by them are as follows:—

1908.				linutes	verag. Knots r hou
Lusitania:					
New York to Queenstown.	Oct. 14	4	zz	43	23
Queenstown to New York.	Aug. 15		15		
Mauretania:					
New York to Queenstown.	Mar. 7		0	05	24·42
Queenstown to New York.	May 27				

On her first voyage to New York in September, 1907, the Lusitania steamed from land to land in the briefest time hitherto achieved, viz., 5 days 54 minutes, the previous best being the Hamburg-American liner Deutschland's 5 days 7 hours 38 minutes; but the mean speed of the Lusitania's voyage—which was made over the shorter course—viz., 23·01 knots, still stood surpassed by prior performances on the part of the German liners Kaiser Wilhelm II. (23·59 knots), Deutschland (23·51 knots), and Kronprinz Wilhelm (23·47 knots). In October, 1907, the Lusitania, on her second voyage to New York, reduced the time to 4 days 19 hours 52 minutes, and achieved an average speed of 23·99 knots, thus creating two fresh records, each of which she improved upon in 1908. The Mauretania, which started on her maiden voyage on November 16th, 1907, accomplished nothing notable until the succeeding year.

Despite the additional speed of the giant Cunarders, the German liners still hold the mail record on account of the greater overland journey of letters sent by the Cunard, which are landed at Queenstown, and come to London via Dublin and Holyhead.

The North-German Lloyd liner, **Kaiser Wilhelm II.**, achieved another record. Leaving New York at noon on August 18th, 1908, she anchored in Plymouth Sound at 4.27 a.m. on August 24th, after steaming from Sandy Hook to the Eddystone in 5 days 9 hours 55 minutes, the quickest time ever accomplished for the extended course of 3,080 miles. The **average speed was 23·73 knots**, a German record, and which has only been exceeded by the Lusitania and the Mauretania.

The mails were despatched by the Great Western special at 5.44 a.m., and reached Paddington at 10 a.m., the letters being delivered in the City at 11 a.m. As the New York post for letters by the Kaiser Wilhelm closed at 6.30 a.m. on August 18th, **this constituted a record for the delivery of mails in London.**

The **Canadian Pacific Railway Co.'s steamer,** Empress of Britain, has **broken the record from Liverpool to Rimonski** by 26 minutes, completing the trip in 5 days 13 hours 28 minutes.

On October 26th, the P. & O. Co.'s new liner Salsette arrived at Bombay, having performed the voyage from Marseilles in the record time of 11 days 21 hours.

OUR SHIPPING.

Shipping—sail and steam vessels, with cargoes and in ballast—entered, the ports of the United Kingdom to the tonnage of 66,240,913 in 1907; and to the tonnage of 67,030,807 cleared from these ports. Of these totals 40,415,618 British tons entered, and 40,892,824 tons cleared.

No other nation's ships came anywhere near these figures. Among ships that entered, Germany came next with only 6,651,829 tons, and 6,703,184 cleared; next comes Norway with 4,238,079 tons in, and 4,291,419 tons cleared.

The total number and tonnage of vessels registered under Cl. 1 of the Merchant Shipping Act, belonging to the United Kingdom, in 1907, was 21,042, with net tonnage of 11,485,099, and gross tonnage of 18,089,642. Of these 9,648 were sailing-vessels and 11,394 were steamers.

1,266 ships were built in the United Kingdom in 1907, and of these 327 were sailing-vessels and 929 steam-vessels.

ROMANCE OF SHIPBUILDING.

NOTABLE VESSELS: NEW FREEBOARD TABLES.

The most noteworthy vessels launched during 1908 were the Laurentic (White Star), Otaki (New Zealand Shipping Co.), Salsette (P. and O.), Paul Paix (Lennards Carrying Co.), Tenyo Maru (Toyo Kisen Kaisha), and Leviathan (dredger).

The Laurentic, built at Belfast by Messrs. Harland and Wolff, signalises the entry of the White Star Line into the Canadian trade in conjunction with the Dominion Line, and thus the strengthening of one of the most important links in the chain of Empire. The Laurentic will be the largest vessel in the Canadian trade, being 565 ft. long by 67 ft. beam, and 14,500 tons gross.

From the engineering standpoint, the **Laurentic** and **Otaki** must be considered together, as they **are the pioneer examples of the adoption of a combination of reciprocating engines with a low pressure turbine, which amounts to a practical revolution in steamship machinery, due to the genius of British engineers.** This arrangement of machinery constitutes the vessel a triple-screw steamer, each of the wing propellers being driven by four crank triple balanced engines, and the central propeller by a turbine.

The object is to retain the advantages of the highly perfected balanced reciprocating engines, and at the same time get the benefit of the further expansion of steam in a low-pressure turbine, whilst avoiding the complication of an astern turbine, which is essential in steamers fitted with turbines only. For manœuvring in and out of port the reciprocating engines only will be used.

It is quite clearly understood that the crux of the problem is the relative efficiency of three propellers as compared with two, and this can only be determined by such practical experiments.

The Otaki, built at Dumbarton by Messrs. Denny, is a cargo-boat of 8,000 tons and 13 knots speed, and will ply in a round-the-world service.

The Salsette is a 6,000-ton twin-screw express steamer, built in Messrs. Caird's yard at Greenock.

The Paul Paix (Messrs. R. Craggs & Son, Middlesborough) is a steel oil-tank steamer, and the first ship to be built on the Isherwood longitudinal system of construction. The closely-spaced transverse ribs familiar in ordinary vessels are omitted, and the transverse strength is obtained by fitting on the shell and deck plating a series of strong transverses at widely spaced intervals. These transverses extend completely round the sides, bottom, and deck of the ship. The new system enables the vessel to be built of greater weight than ordinarily, and at the same time the dead-weight carrying capacity is considerably augmented.

The Tenyo-Maru, 13,454 tons, built at Nagasaki, and fitted to burn liquid fuel, is the largest vessel yet constructed in Japan, and the first built in that country in which turbine machinery has been installed. This, and two sister turbines under construction in the same yard, will be employed in the Trans-Pacific trade **in opposition to the Canadian Pacific Railway** and other steamship lines.

WHITE STAR LINE'S PROGRAMME.

The Cunard Line is to be emulated in point of size, but not of speed.

The White Star Line is building a sister ship to the Laurentic, to be called the **Megantic**, and **have arranged to construct for their New York service two steamers which in point of size will eclipse everything afloat**, whilst the numerous innovations devised for the comfort of passengers will come as a revelation. The first of them is to be called Olympic, and Titanic is suggested as the probable name of the other. Their probable dimensions will compare with those of the two gargantuan Cunarders as follows:

	Length. Feet.	Beam. Feet.	Gross tonnage.	Speed Knots
Olympic and Titanic ..	840	78	50,000	21
Mauretania & Lusitania	790	88	32,000	25

The Adriatic, the largest of White Star steamers to date, has a gross tonnage of 24,541, a length of 709 ft., and a breadth of 75 ft. 5 in., while her speed is 18 knots.

The Olympic and Titanic will each have a displacement of 60,000 tons, and cost a million and a half sterling each. They will probably be equipped with a combination of turbine and reciprocating engines. The berths at Messrs. Harland & Wolff's yards on which they are being built are each 1,000 ft. long, and are capable of bearing a dead weight of 75,000 tons. The Olympic will be ready for launching in the autumn of 1910.

The same firm are building for the Atlantic Transport Line, which runs from Tilbury to New York, and owns the biggest boats coming into the Thames, the Minnewaska, of 14,000 tons gross. The Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company have ordered two turbine steamers for the Fleetwood and Belfast route. A purely mercantile type of steamer, for which there is an increasing demand, is that designed for the carriage of oil in bulk. At the present time there are no less than twenty-seven oil-carrying vessels, with a total tonnage of 128,473 tons, under construction.

The largest dredger in the world, built by Messrs. Cammell, Laird & Co. for the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board, was launched in October at Birkenhead. The **Leviathan** is designed to lift by suction 10,000 tons of sand in 50 minutes from a depth of 70 feet.

CADET SHIP MERSEY.

The new cadet ship Mersey, of the White Star Line, which was sent on her maiden voyage on August 20th, represents a remarkable project for the improvement in the number and personnel of the mercantile marine. The idea of a sea-going training-ship has nothing new to commend it. It has for long been the ideal of

all those who desired some more suitable method of equipping our merchant fleet with capable and highly efficient officers. The North-German Lloyd Line had already set up a nursery of this kind. On the Mersey, which is a fine clipper ship, cadets will be articled for four years, or for three years if they are duly certified from the Conway or Worcester cadet ships.

It should be noted that the choice of a sailing-ship reaffirms the opinion so tenaciously held in certain quarters that, without experience in sail, an officer is less equipped in courage and resource. It is, however, impossible to overlook the fact that boys cannot become cadets on the Mersey unless their people are tolerably well off. His four years' training will cost a lad £200, apart from outfit, books, instruments, and pocket-money. Therefore the scheme must appeal to a limited number of parents.

SHIPBUILDING INDUSTRY.

A dark cloud hung over the mercantile shipbuilding trade during 1908, and at the time of writing the bad times are still with us. Shipowners complain bitterly of the **lowness of freights and the unprofitable nature of their business.** Shipbuilders and engineers have reached a stage beyond complaining, and are becoming almost callous to the stagnation that exists. Orders of any kind are of the scarcest, and are confined to small coasting vessels, tugs, barges, and the specialised type of vessel known as the oil-tanker.

From the returns compiled by Lloyd's Register it appears that the gross tonnage of mercantile vessels now under construction is nearly 350,000 tons less than that building twelve months ago, and is the lowest recorded in the society's returns since 1896.

This extraordinary **slump in the production of cargo craft** was accompanied during the first half of the year by a little dispute between the shipyard masters and their employees, leading to sporadic strikes and lock-outs, though a complete stoppage of work happily was averted. The governing cause of this great depression, of course, is general slackness of trade, but various other factors conspired to render it more acute. The end of the long-sustained boom in the ocean-carrying trade came with startling abruptness. Consistent over-construction marked the cycle of prosperity, the termination of which, at towards the close of 1907, also coincided with the introduction of the **new free-board tables,** enabling ships to load much deeper than formerly. **The latter momentous alteration was equivalent to adding at a swoop as many as one million tons to the mercantile tonnage of the United Kingdom.**

Lastly, **the ocean liner has entered into competition with the tramp steamer.** The former attracts traders by reason of the more regular sailings and superior speed, while her freight-rates are only slightly higher.

The stagnation of business has not, however, spread to the industry of mail and fast passenger-steamer construction. This is because the art of designing and engining the greyhounds of the seas fairly races along; and, moreover, because such shipbuilding is an international business, German, French, and American lines being engaged in the keenest rivalry with those flying the British flag; whereas the **ocean tramp trade is practically a British monopoly.**

For all this depression there is no remedy but a general improvement in trade. How or when that is to come no man can tell. Nevertheless, the dark cloud has its silver lining. The hard times have impelled our shipbuilders to carry on the industry with unsurpassed economy and efficiency; as a result, foreign competition in shipbuilding is not meantime to be feared.

OUR GREAT PORTS.

The relative importance of the Ports of the Empire is shown by this table, which gives the tonnage of British and Foreign Vessels in the Foreign Trades which entered them in the year 1906.

Ports.		Ports.	Tons.	Ports.	Tons.
England and Wales:		Ireland:		British South Africa:	
Bristol	820,245	Belfast	466,661	Cape of Good Hope:	
Cardiff	5,295,331	Dublin	262,238	Cape Town	2,845,634
Dover	2,577,607	British India:		East London	149,690
Grimsby	1,247,130	Calcutta	1,645,010	Dominion of Canada:	
Hull	2,915,370	Bombay	1,763,286	Montreal (Ocean Trade)	1,332,609
Liverpool	8,145,441	Australia:		Halifax	889,030
London	11,222,542	Melbourne	469,641	Victoria (British Columbia)	1,000,175
Middlesbrough	1,434,807	Sydney	869,506	Gibraltar	4,695,287
Newport	1,445,751	Adelaide	353,540	Malta	3,645,906
Southampton	2,264,646	Albany	151,768	Aden	3,134,101
Sunderland	1,115,725	Fremantle	547,052	Ceylon—Colombo	6,281,164
Swansea	837,614	Hobart	329,334	Straits Settlements:	
Port Talbot	433,729	Brisbane	161,827	Singapore	6,466,411
Tyne Ports	5,548,111	Dominion of New Zealand:		Penang	2,375,433
		Auckland	593,493	Hong Kong—Victoria	11,050,070
Scotland:		Wellington	342,308		
Glasgow	1,842,416	British South Africa:			
Grangemouth	687,793	Natal:			
Kirkcaldy	32,441	Durban	1,504,514		
Burnt Island	547,180				
Methil	845,071				
Leith	1,312,938				

TO REVIVE AN OLD WORLD.

CHALDÆA: BAGDAD RAILWAY: MECCA RAILWAY.

TO RE-CREATE CHALDÆA.

Sir William Willcocks has been engaged by the Turkish Government to supervise the contemplated irrigation and canalisation works in Mesopotamia and elsewhere.

Sir William, in 1905, surveyed the country and upon his return to Bombay gave enthusiastic estimates of the future of this ancient granary. His new appointment will enable him "to devote himself to the attainment of the dream of his life," says the "Times of India"—"the re-creation of Chaldæa."

"The magnitude of the scheme may be judged from the fact that rough estimates place the **irrigable area at nearly 3,000,000 acres, the expenditure at £21,000,000 sterling, and the capital value of the land, when irrigated, at £60,000,000**.

"Nothing is needed but money, brains and labour to make the Tigro-Euphrates Valley just such a waving wheatfield as the Cherub and Thelum Canal colonies. The desert will blossom like a garden; new cities will rise on the ruins of the mighty memories of the Assyrian and Sassanian kings. Basra will become another Hamburg or Antwerp, and India will find in the Tigro-Euphrates Valley a field for colonisation and trade rich beyond the dreams of avarice."

THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

One of the most interesting railways which yet remains to be made is that which will, in days to come, run through the morning lands of history—**the Bagdad Railway**.

A portion of it, under German influence, is already made, and runs from Hardar Pasha, on the Bosphorus opposite Constantinople, to Konich in the heart of Asia Minor. **When this is extended over the Taurus Mountains to Bagdad and the Persian Gulf it will afford facilities for a romantic journey.**

One of the chief difficulties in this extension is that the country to be traversed, though capable of development, will for a long time not repay the cost of construction, though by the Agreement of 1903 Turkey undertook a kilometric guarantee (says the "*Spectator*").

But, although the guarantee seems assured, **Germany needs more capital than she can produce herself for the very expensive stretch of line over the Taurus and to Bagdad.** Moreover, as has been very clearly pointed out by Mr. Chirol, Germany realises that her position, in case of trouble in Turkey, would be much strengthened if she could induce other Powers to become financially and politically interested with herself in this line.

Our interest in forwarding the Bagdad Railway is obviously not supreme. We should never have a controlling voice in it, and though we might use it, we do not need it for our commerce or connections. On the other hand, we might find ourselves in a very false position, and in one contrary to our general policy, if, owing to large British investments in the undertaking, we felt called upon to defend the Bagdad Railway at Constantinople in opposition to Russia's Asiatic policy.

The "Spectator" sums up thus: The true policy of Britain in regard to the Bagdad Railway would appear to be contained in the following injunctions:

(1) Do not oppose the railway, or play the part of the dog-in-the-manger. Such action is foolish and unjust, and almost always unsuccessful. (2) Consult Russian interests and susceptibilities in the matter, and act loyally with her in any diplomatic action.

(3) Maintain the sound British policy of leaving investors to undertake their own responsibilities, and refuse to have any investments earmarked by the State as "specially recommended." (4) If the railway is made, take care that the final section—i.e., that which debouches on the Gulf—shall be either under British control or else really independent. (5) Avoid dual control or participation in international control.

Herr von Schön, speaking of the Bagdad Railway, in the Reichstag, said: "We may grant that this territory will also be opened up for other nations besides ourselves. In the matter of the Badgad Railway I must expressly insist that political aims and arrières-pensées do not exist for us. What we have in view is the civilising and exploitation of countries which are worth this exploitation; that is to say we wish to co-operate in reawakening, after thousands of years of slumber, land which flourished in antiquity, thereby also acquiring for ourselves a new market."

THE MECCA RAILWAY.

The railway which is to run from Damascus to Mecca has reached Medina, where Mahomet is buried, and was formally opened on September 1st, 1908.

From Damascus to Medina is 800 miles, and it has taken seven years to make this railway. The remaining 285 miles will take two other years. The work has been done by Turkish troops, and the money has been raised by Mohammedans only. The railway was opened without a debt and without capital.

The railway "follows the pilgrim route which for 1,200 years has been painfully trodden by the feet of the faithful from Asia Minor and the Mediterranean," says the "Manchester Guardian." "As now planned, it will subserve the convenience of only a section, and the lesser section, of the Mohammedan world. When the Bagdad Railway connects Damascus with the valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates the Mohammedans of Persia will have a speedy and convenient road to Mecca; but until then they will probably continue to follow the old caravan routes which cross the Arabian desert."

U.S. WATERWAYS.

A Bill to provide £100,000,000 to carry on the improvement of the United States waterways has been introduced into Congress, and it is hoped that a Cabinet office, to be called Secretary of the Department of Public Works, will be appointed. If this is done, it is expected that a plan of making the waterway between the American lakes and the Gulf of Mexico will be carried out within ten years. It has been estimated that if the streams of the Mississippi Valley were improved as thoroughly as those of France or Germany, 16,000 miles of navigable water would be extended to 45,000.

SECTION 5.—THE EMPIRE.

THE EMPIRE IN FIGURES.

THE WONDERFUL GROWTH OF A HUNDRED YEARS.

Some idea of the area and population of the Empire and of its various States, of its growth in the last fifty years, and of its military and naval resources, will be gained by the following figures:

The area of the British Empire is 13,000,000 square miles, or more than one-fifth of the whole area of land on the globe—which is calculated to be 55,000,000 square miles. The following are the areas of the chief States or Colonies in order of their size:

	Sq. Miles.
Canada	3,745,000
Australia	2,974,000
Indian Empire	1,766,000
South African Colonies	1,238,000
West African possessions	486,000
East Africa and Uganda	398,000
Newfoundland and Labrador ..	162,000
United Kingdom	121,000
New Zealand	104,000

The total population of the Empire in 1901 was 385,346,000, and in 1908 is over 400,000,000, so that it is between one-fourth and one-fifth the total population of the globe, which is estimated at 1,750,000,000 souls. It is larger than that of any other nation; for though Chinese estimates put the total population of the Chinese Empire at 450,000,000, they are not accepted by statisticians.

Of the vast population of the Empire only a mere fraction is white. **The total white population in 1908 stood, according to estimates, as follows:**

United Kingdom	44,800,000
Canada	6,250,000
Australia	4,200,000
South Africa	1,250,000
New Zealand	900,000
Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus	450,000
Other Colonies	500,000
	58,350,000

Subtracting this from the figure given for the **coloured population,** the total for the latter is **351,650,000.** Thus there are six coloured inhabitants of the Empire for every white one.

In order of total population, **the most important States of the Empire stand as follows:**

Indian Empire	300,000,000
United Kingdom	44,800,000
West Africa	16,500,000
East Africa and Uganda	7,500,000
South Africa	6,400,000
Canada	6,250,000
Australia	4,400,000
Ceylon	4,000,000
West Indies	1,574,000
New Zealand	900,000

The development of the British Empire between 1860 and 1906–7 is shown by the following figures, thus illustrating the enormous advance in every conceivable respect:

	1860.	1906–7.
Area, square miles	5,850,000	11,445,000
Population	200,000,000	410,000,000
White population	34,000,000	58,350,000
Revenue	114,000,000	280,000,000
Trade (impts. and expts.).	503,000,000	1,526,000,000

Thus, in a period slightly less than fifty years, **the area and population have been doubled;** the white population has increased by 24,000,000; the revenue has increased two and a half times; and the volume of trade has been more than trebled.

The cost of all the defensive forces of the Empire is £91,000,000 out of a total of £301,000,000 spent in administering the Empire. This is more than any other single Power in the world spends upon its naval and military forces.

The following are the amounts contributed by the various States of the Empire to naval defence:

Total naval expenditure ..	32,702,000
Contributed by India for Indian Squadron	100,000
Trooping Service	4,000
Australia	200,000
New Zealand	40,000
Cape Colony	50,000
Natal	35,000
Newfoundland	3,000
Total Colonial contributions..	432,000
Paid by the taxpayer of the United Kingdom	32,270,000

The people of the United Kingdom thus contribute 15s. per head, and the white inhabitants of the Empire outside the British Isles only 6d.

EMPIRE DAY.

The Earl of Meath says that "Empire Day," **May 24th, was first observed** within the British Isles and throughout portions of the Empire in 1904, but May 24th had been kept for some years previously in Canada as "Victoria Day," "Empire Day" being celebrated by the Dominion schools on the last school-day before May 24th.

The real importance of the movement is the systematic training of the rising generation, in the home and in the school, in the knowledge and virtues that are likely to make them good citizens. Its spirit is expressed by its watch-words: "Responsibility, Duty, Sympathy, and Self-sacrifice"; by its motto, "One King, one Flag, one Fleet, one Empire"; and by its rallying cry, "For God, Duty, and Empire."

The movement enjoins British citizens to love and fear God, to honour the King, to obey the laws, to prepare to advance the highest interests of the Empire in peace and war, to cherish patriotism, to regard the rights of other nations, to learn citizenship, to follow duty, to consider duties before rights, to acquire knowledge, to think broadly, to practise discipline, to subdue self, to work for others, to consider the poor and the suffering.

IMPERIAL REPRESENTATIVES.

Colony.	Salaries.	Governors.	Agents-General in London.	Address.
Australia ..	£10,000	Earl of Dudley	Capt. R. Muirhead Collins, C.M.G.	72, Victoria St.
Canada ..	$50,000	Earl Grey	Lord Strathcona ..	17, Victoria St.
Cape Colony	£8,000	Hon. Sir W. H. Hutchinson	Sir Thomas E. Fuller, K.C.M.G.	100, Victoria St.
Natal ..	£5,000	Sir Matthew Nathan ..	Sir William Arbuckle (acting).	26, Victoria St.
Newfoundland	$10,000	Sir W. MacGregor	——	
New Sth. Wales	£5,000	Sir H. H. Rawson	T. A. Coghlan	123, Cannon St.
New Zealand ..	£7,000	Lord Plunket ..	W. Hall Jones	13, Victoria St.
Queensland ..	£5,000	Lord Chelmsford	Hon. Sir H. Tozer ..	1, Victoria St.
South Australia	£4,000	Sir G. Le Hunte	Hon. J. G. Jenkins ..	28, Bishopsgate St. Within, E.C.
Tasmania	£2,750	Sir Gerald Strickland	Hon. Alfred Dobson, C.M.G.	5, Victoria St.
Victoria .	£5,000	Hon. Sir R. Talbot .	Hon. J. W. Taverner	142, Queen Victoria St.
West. Australia	£4,000	Sir F. G. D. Bedford . ..	Hon. C. H. Rason .	15, Victoria St.
Transvaal ..	£8,000	Earl of Selborne (Governor and Commander-in-Chief)	Sir Richard Solomon	72, Victoria St.
OrangeR.Colony	£4,000	Sir H. J. Goold-Adams (Governor and Commander-in-Chief)	——	

TRADE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Here at a glance is seen the gigantic total trade of the British Empire in the years 1905 and 1906. This includes the foreign trade, the trade of our Colonies with the Mother Country, and the trade of the Colonies between themselves.

——	1905 (in thousands of £)	1906 (in thousands of £)
Trade of the British Empire with Foreign Countries:		
Imports	563,416	610,079
Exports	448,693	519,699
Total foreign trade..	1,012,109	1,129,778
Trade of the United Kingdom with British Colonies and Possessions:		
Imports	161,900	180,708
Exports	135,524	152,593
Inter-Colonial Trade:		
Imports	57,142	62,939
Total Inter-Imperial Trade	354,566	396,240
Grand Total ..	1,366,675	1,526,018
Percentage proportion of:		
Foreign trade.. ..	74·1	74·0
Inter-Imperial trade	25·9	26·0

WHAT THE COLONIES SEND US.

These Imports into the United Kingdom represent the trade between the Colonies and the Mother Country in 1906 divided into five classes:

i. Food, Drink, and Tobacco ..	58,508,047
ii. Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	63,571,728
iii Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured (including Ships)	19,506,108
iv. Miscellaneous and Unclassified Articles (including Parcel Post)	579,357
Total Merchandise ..	142,165,240
v. Bullion and Specie	38,543,254
Total Imports ..	180,708,494

WHAT WE SEND THEM.

And these figures represent the trade of the Mother Country with her Colonies—the Exports from the United Kingdom (Domestic and Foreign):

i. Food, Drink, and Tobacco ..	11,271,179
ii. Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	4,210,237
iii. Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured (including Ships)	112,906,363
iv. Miscellaneous and Unclassified Articles (including Parcel Post)	2,259,272
Total Merchandise ..	130,647,051
v. Bullion and Specie	21,945,638
Total Exports	152,592,689

TRADE OF THE MOTHER COUNTRY WITH HER COLONIES.

Here at a glance is shown the value of the trade of the various British Colonies with the Mother Country—the Imports and Exports—for the year 1906

Colonies, &c.	Imports.	Exports.
British India	41,061,428	66,155,611
Aden	226,219	270,171
Australia :		
New South Wales .	14,074,619	8,403,545
Victoria..	9,584,234	7,310,456
S. Australia (includ. N'thern Territory)	3,828,451	2,272,556
Western Australia	5,512,523	2,185,063
Tasmania .. .	406,407	476,816
Queensland .. .	2,713,685	2,309,047
Total Australian Commonwealth	36,119,919	22,957,483
Dominion of New Zealand	15,787,600	8,132,846
Dominion of Canada	30,320,011	16,011,743
Newfoundland ..	630,650	586,848
British South Africa:		
Cape of Good Hope	30,328,694	11,617,854
Natal	1,795,286	5,183,884
Other Colonies and Possessions :		
Somaliland Prot.	434	1,141
East Africa	235,692	570,655
Straits Settlements	9,055,184	4,036,196
Labuan	89	5,579
Ceylon	4,860,287	1,727,792
Mauritius	121,352	424,14[illegible]
Seychelles	18,343	22,003
British N. Borneo	15,360	30,918
Territory of Papua	590	[illegible]
Fiji	20,811	94,148
Other Islands in the Pacific	17,042	3,276
Falkland Islands ..	144,694	44,905
Ascension	68	5,344
St. Helena	246	30,505
West Africa :		
Nigeria, Prots. of ..	1,570,210	1,094,407
,, S., Colony of (Lagos)	386,908	758,961
Gold Coast ..	1,389,188	1,321,193
Sierra Leone	204,569	493,960
Gambia ..	29,887	163,816
Total West Africa	3,580,792	3,832,337
Bermuda..	3,193	117,066
British Honduras ..	207,234	111,623
,, W. India Islands	2,573,912	2,639,286
,, Guiana ..	526,041	724,828
Cyprus	144,727	127,677
Channel Islands ..	1,614,974	1,353,186
Gibraltar..	85,656	1,010,184
Malta	84,427	1,205,693
Hong Kong	963,651	3,504,455
Deep Sea Fisheries	161,327	1,766
Not allocated (Bullion and Specie)	2,531	39,781
Total	180,708,494	152,502,689

CHIEF TOWNS IN THE EMPIRE.

Cities and Towns.	Estimated in 1906.
England & Wales :	(a)
London	4,758,218
Liverpool	746,144
Manchester ..	643,148
Salford	236,670
Birmingham..	553,155
Leeds	470,268
Sheffield .. .	455,553
Bristol .. .	367,979
Bradford .. .	290,323
Kingston-upon-Hull	266,762
Nottingham .	257,489
Newcastle-on-Tyne .	272,969
Leicester .. .	236,124
Cardiff .. .	187,620
Scotland :	
Glasgow .. .	847,584
Edinburgh .	345,747
Ireland :	
Belfast .. .	370,163
Dublin .. .	390,691
British India :	
Calcutta ..	955,926
Bombay ..	982,000
Madras ..	548,974
Hyderabad..	448,466
Lucknow ..	264,049
Rangoon ..	234,881
Benares ..	209,331
Delhi	208,575
Lahore ..	202,964
Australia :	
Sydney ..	538,800
Melbourne (G't'r Melbourne)	526,400
Adelaide	174,438
Brisbane	132,468
New Zealand :	
Auckland .. .	69,149
Christchurch .	54,922
Dunedin .. .	58,036
Wellington.. .	67,535
Domin. of Canada	
Montreal .. .	405,000
Toronto .. .	323,801
Canada—contd.	
Quebec	81,000
Winnipeg	90,153
Newfoundland :	
St. John's	(b) 29,594
Natal :	
Durban (Municipality).	69,894
Pietermaritzburg (Municipality).	31,809
Cape of Good Hope:	
Cape Town ..	(c) 169,641
Transvaal :	
Johannesburg ..	107,000
Straits Settlements :	
Singapore (Settlement of)	(a) 228,555
Ceylon :	
Colombo	174,980
Hong Kong :	
Victoria	211,083

(a) The figures given for Cities and Towns in the British Isles and India represent the estimated population in the middle of 1907. (b) Figures for 1901. (c) 1904 figures.

THE EMPIRE'S CORNFIELDS.

This table shows the production of Wheat, Barley, Oats, and Maize in various parts of the British Empire in the year 1906.

Country.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Maize.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
United Kingdom	60,618,412	67,479,688	174,872,611	—
British India	317,633,493	—	—	—
Australia:				
New South Wales	21,817,938	152,739	1,404,554	5,763,000
Victoria	22,618,043	1,255,442	8,845,654	704,961
South Australia	17,145,796	491,246	896,166	—
Western Australia	2,758,567	48,827	457,155	919
Tasmania	651,408	141,895	1,979,574	—
Queensland	1,108,902	158,283	28,884	3,703,274
Total Australian Commonwealth	66,100,654	2,248,432	13,611,987	10,172,154
Dominion of New Zealand	5,605,252	1,035,346	11,201,789	406,491
Cape of Good Hope	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.
Natal	7,677	4,506	6,639	3,727,836
Orange River Colony	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.
Transvaal	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.
Dominion of Canada:				
Ontario	22,108,774	25,253,011	108,341,455	23,988,682
Quebec	...	—	—	—
Nova Scotia	—	—	—	—
New Brunswick	106,853	99,355	5,695,580	—
Manitoba	54,472,198	11,979,554	44,643,300	—
Prince Edward Island	—	—	—	—
British Columbia	—	—	—	—
Alberta	5,932,267	3,876,468	24,027,071	—
Saskatchewan	50,182,359	2,828,587	41,899,257	—
Cyprus	2,336,847	2,692,973	348,074	—

WHAT THE COLONIES EXPORT.

Here, under four main heads, are the Exports of each of the principal British Colonies to the United Kingdom and all foreign countries in 1906.

			nd Articles mainly Un-		Total Merchandis	Bullio Spe
						£
United Kingdom	1899	16,571,000	61,341,000	157,301,000	235,213,000	22,065,000
	1900	15,772,000	73,701,000	162,818,000	252,291,000	18,009,000
	1901	15,652,000	69,643,000	149,361,000	234,656,000	14,125,000
	1902	14,805,000	69,150,000	147,705,000	231,660,000	14,446,000
	1903	15,336,000	72,412,000	153,141,000	240,889,000	27,673,000
	1904	17,015,000	70,833,000	162,384,000	250,232,000	31,417,000
	1905	20,552,000	75,720,000	188,612,000	284,884,000	32,580,000
	1906	21,893,000	86,474,000	221,664,000	330,031,000	39,537,000
British India (by sea) (year ended March 31st)	1906–7	8,519,000	38,669,000	17,018,000	64,206,000	841,000
Australian Commonwealth	1906	1,873,000	15,229,000	2,837,000	19,939,000	3,094,000
Dominion of New Zealand	1906	72,000	781,000	40,0(	893,000	14,000
Dominion of Canada	1905–6	3,878,000	12,095,000	2,394,000	18,367,000	4,712,000
Newfoundland ..	1905–6	1,363,000	272,000	4,000	1,639,000	—
Cape of Good Hope	1905	Not stated.	Not stated.	Not stated.	1,786,000	—
Natal	1905	Not stated.	Not stated.	Not stated.	413,000	—
British South Africa:						
Via Cape of Good Hope		230,000	1,007,000	189,000	1,426,000	1,000
,, Natal		22,000	459,000	66,000	547,000	—
,, Delagoa Bay ..	1906	13,000	21,000	22,000	56,000	—
,, Beira			76,000	2,000	78,000	4,000
Total British South Africa.		265,000	1,563,000	279,000	2,107,000	5,000

THE EMPIRE'S SHIPPING.

The Empire in 1906 owned a shipping tonnage of 12,791,381, including sailing and steam vessels, owned as set out below. In 1892 the total owned was 10,286,198 tons. The total shipping that entered the ports of the Empire from all countries in 1906 was about 92,300,000 tons, and 94,700,000 tons cleared. Of this 50,000,000 tons of British vessels entered the ports, and 52,600,000 cleared—more than half in both cases. New British vessels of 1,148,560 tons were built in the United Kingdom in 1906. The vessels of other countries which entered the ports of the Empire in 1906 were: United States, 16,322,000; Germany, 10,059,000; France, 7,634,000; Holland, 7,174,000: China, 6,277,000.

Country.	Tons.	Country.	Tons.
United Kingdom (including Isle of Man and Channel Islands)	11,167,332	Other Colonies and Possessions—continued	
British India	97,828	Hong Kong	49,181
Self-Governing Colonies:		Fiji	1,419
Australia:		Falkland Islands	255
New South Wales	127,503	S. Nigeria (Lagos), Gambia, and Sierra Leone	2,108
Victoria	121,131	Bermuda	
South Australia	57,598	British Honduras ..	5,593
Western Australia	19,989	British Guiana	3,074
Tasmania	18,203		
Queensland	23,605	West India Islands:	
Total Australian Commonwealth ..	368,029	Bahamas	27,877
		Jamaica	3,481
Dominion of New Zealand	122,760	Trinidad	1,035
Dominion of Canada	661,196	Other Islands	18,262
Newfoundland	135,785		
Cape of Good Hope and Natal	7,549	Total West India Islands	50,658
Other Colonies and Possessions:		Gibraltar	3,165
Straits Settlements	87,664	Malta ..	4,752
Ceylon	11,954		
Mauritius	4,854		12,791,381

WHAT THE COLONIES IMPORT.

Here, under four ... heads, are the Imports of each of the principal British Colo... the United Kingdom and all foreign countries in 1906.

Country.		Food, Drink and Tobacco	Raw Materials and Articles Mainly Unmanufactured	Articles Wholly ...	Merchandise	Bullion and Specie
					£	£
United Kingdom	1899	166,965,000	100,957,000	110,212,000	378,134,000	22,429,000
	1900	177,592,000	121,020,000	114,822,000	413,434,000	27,898,000
	1901	182,496,000	118,472,000	115,337,000	416,305,000	16,511,000
	1902	180,286,000	119,634,000	121,555,000	421,475,000	13,660,000
	1903	180,857,000	124,997,000	123,076,000	428,930,000	12,371,000
	1904	174,199,000	133,751,000	123,070,000	431,020,000	14,587,000
	1905	172,095,000	135,975,000	129,081,000	437,151,000	17,529,000
	1906	179,650,000	147,907,000	138,166,000	465,723,000	24,787,000
British India (by sea) (year ended March 31st)	1906–7	5,651,000	2,637,000	10,222,000	18,510,000	1,760,000
Australian Commonwealth	1906	1,841,000	1,313,000	7,761,000	11,415,000	3,000
Dominion of New Zealand	1906	493,000	358,000	1,466,000	2,317,000	5,000
Dominion of Canada	1905–6	6,482,000	12,597,000	22,804,000	41,883,000	1,452,000
Newfoundland ..	1905–6	435,000	114,000	267,000	816,000	—
Cape of Good Hope	1902	3,616,000	1,327,000	2,899,000	7,842,000	—
	1903	4,671,000	1,288,000	3,868,000	9,827,000	—
	1904	2,083,000	732,000	2,265,000	5,080,000	—
	1905	Not stated.	Not stated.	Not stated.	4,052,000	—
Natal	1905	Not stated.	Not stated.	Not stated.	2,597,000	6,000
British S. Africa:						
Via Cape of Good Hope	1906	1,911,000	597,000	2,442,000	4,950,000	—
,, Natal	1906	937,000	290,000	1,303,000	2,530,000	3,000
,, Delagoa Bay	1906	354,000	220,000	981,000	1,555,000	—
,, Beira	1906	54,000	18,000	85,000	157,000	8,000
Total British South Africa.		3,256,000	1,125,000	4,811,000	9,192,000	11,000

EMPIRE'S FOREIGN TRADE.

Here is shown the values of the Empire's Imports from the chief foreign countries in 1906 and the Exports from the Empire to the same foreign countries.
The **Total Imports** were **£610,079,000** and the **Total Exports** were **£519,690,000.**

Countries.	Imports 1906.	Exports 1906.	Countries.	Imports 1906.	Exports 1906.
		£		£	£
Russia	30,250,000	19,118,000	Turkey	6,919,000	10,458,000
Norway and Sweden	18,882,000	11,269,000	Egypt	17,933,000	17,370,000
Denmark	16,651,000	5,617,000	China..	5,727,000	19,180,000
Germany	53,225,000	70,648,000	Japan	5,641,000	19,794,000
German Possessions	182,000	1,001,000	U. States of America	199,102,000	111,893,000
Holland	39,511,000	19,118,000	U.S. Possessions ..	1,939,000	2,736,000
Dutch Possessions	10,255,000	10,036,000	Mexico	1,219,000	2,641,000
Belgium	34,664,000	27,966,000	Cen. American States	1,114,000	1,157,000
France	62,136,000	50,890,000	Colombia & Panama	677,000	1,337,000
French Possessions	3,540,000	2,830,000	Venezuela	1,096,000	1,037,000
Portugal and Portuguese Possessions	3,977,000	8,346,000	Ecuador	140,000	405,000
			Brazil	9,939,000	11,409,000
Spain and Spanish Possessions	17,894,000	8,034,000	Uruguay	592,000	4,700,000
			Argentine Republic..	25,613,000	23,317,000
Italy	5,245,000	17,450,000	Chile	6,550,000	7,684,000
Austria-Hungary	4,064,000	8,028,000	Peru	1,680,000	2,161,000

THREE IMPORTANT CUSTOMERS.

Here is shown the trade of the chief British Colonies with France, Germany, and the United States in 1906.

Colony.	France.		Germany.		United States of America.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom ..	57,693,731	34,698,027	40,211,920	48,969,233	146,063,605	67,429,080
British India :						
By Sea	1,022,237	7,502,278	3,879,946	13,181,357	1,698,990	10,434,290
Australian Commonwealth	462,622	5,553,055	3,204,844	3,725,974	4,633,553	4,338,701
Dominion of New Zealand	79,352	52,541	336,960	54,952	1,405,781	642,792
Dominion of Canada..	1,582,376	435,796	1,447,130	384,914	37,149,256	20,104,680
Newfoundland	4,741	2,850	12,464	23,800	741,889	262,905
British South Africa :						
Via Cape of Good Hope	269,076	58,727	1,008,227	603,709	1,538,321	17,203
" Natal	204,010	6,456	550,473	382,129	730,229	17,069
" Delagoa Bay ..	40,807	277	684,270	3,744	395,579	35
" Beira . ..	7,425	—	55,450	62,617	37,927	517
	521,318	65,460	2,298,120	1,052,199	2,702,056	34,824
West Africa	177,509	387,022	650,332	1,646,542	63,654	14,270
West India Islands ..	90,776	520,596	128,734	153,264	2,556,218	2,528,936
Total	62,136,000	50,890,000	53,225,000	70,648,000	199,102,000	111,893,000

WHAT THE EMPIRE PRODUCES.

At a glance one can see from the figures below what the Empire produced in 190[illegible]

Coal, 284,255,000 tons
Iron ore, 16,680,000 tons
Pig-iron, 10,644,000 tons
Diamonds, £9,272,000
Gold, £49,500,000
Silver, £2,090,000
Copper, £6,342,000
Tin, £10,700,000
Wheat, 528,000,000 bushels
Barley, 110,700,000 bushels
Oats, 353,000,000 bushels
Maize, 38,300,000 bushels
Wine, 6,800,000 gallons
Tea, 413,063,000 lb.
Coffee, 25,414,000 lb.
Sugar, 59,500,000 cwt.
Rubber, 11,049,000 lb.
Cotton, 1,971,894,000 lb.

OUR DEPENDENCE ON FOREIGNERS.

Here is a table which shows to what extent the British Empire is dependent on foreigners for: (1) Food, Drink and Tobacco; (2) Raw Materials.

These figures show what the Empire imported from all foreign countries in 1906:

Food, Drink, and Tobacco.	£	Raw Materials.	£
Animals for Food	8,083,000	Coal and Coke	4,654,000
Butter	18,205,000	Cotton, raw	55,719,000
Meat	32,639,000	Flax and Hemp (including Tow)	6,355,000
Wheat and Flour	28,726,000	Jute, raw	265,000
Maize and Meal	13,058,000	Silk, raw	1,125,000
Tea	1,308,000	Wool, raw	6,722,000
Sugar (including glucose and molasses)	23,354,000	Hides, Skins, and Furs	8,829,000
Wines and Spirits	7,223,000	Iron Ore	6,585,000
Tobacco of all kinds	6,072,000	Timber	25,521,000

FOREIGNERS NEED THE EMPIRE.

Here is a table which shows to what extent all foreign countries come to the British Empire for: (1) Articles of Food, Drink, and Tobacco (very small amounts); (2) Raw Materials.

These figures show what the Empire exported to foreign countries in 1906:

Food, Drink, and Tobacco.	£	Raw Materials.	£
Animals for food	1,065,000	Coal and Coke	30,900,000
Butter	420,000	Cotton, raw	20,078,000
Meat	1,392,000	Flax and Hemp (including Tow)	1,997,000
Wheat and Flour	3,324,000	Jute, raw	13,175,000
Maize and Meal	175,000	Silk, raw	364,000
Tea	3,361,000	Wool, raw	27,300,000
Sugar (including glucose and molasses)	1,827,000	Hides, Skins, and Furs	19,376,000
Wines and Spirits	1,864,000	Iron Ore	152,000
Tobacco of all kinds	923,000	Timber	6,771,000

INDIAN TRADE AND PREFERENCE.

The Tariff Commission has issued a memorandum dealing with the trade relations of India with the United Kingdom, British Possessions and foreign countries.

It says that **the United Kingdom** holds £48,000,000 out of £72,000,000 of the import trade of India, and £31,000,000 out of £115,000,000 of the exports; the proportion in which the United Kingdom shares in both the import and export trades of India shows continuous decline.

In twenty years the British Empire share of the import trade of India has fallen from 90 to 74½ per cent., while the share of foreign countries, chiefly Germany, Belgium, and Austria-Hungary has increased from 10 to 25½ per cent.; the change to direct trade between India and foreign countries from indirect trade viâ the United Kingdom has affected particular trades but has not appreciably altered the general proportions.

The United Kingdom has ceased to be the chief external market for Indian produce. The United Kingdom proportion has fallen in twenty years from 39½ to 27 per cent., while the proportion of foreign countries (chiefly Germany, the United States and France) has increased from 38½ to 54½ per cent. The share attributed to British Possessions (chiefly Hong Kong, Straits Settlements and Ceylon) has fallen from 22 to 18 per cent.

As regards the Indian export trade in foodstuffs it is seen that Germany is now the largest European market for Indian rice; twenty years ago the whole rice export was returned as sent to the United Kingdom.

The place of India in various suggested schemes of Preference is shown. From 14 to 51 per cent. of the total British imports from India would be effected, according to the scheme adopted. **If retaliation upon Indian products were adopted** by foreign countries it could only operate on raw materials required for their manufactures and admitted free of duty and also on foodstuffs. On the other hand, Indian imports from those countries consist almost entirely of manufactures and sugar, which are now subject to Indian import duties not higher than 5 per cent.

AUSTRALIAN CAPITAL.

The ballot in the Senate on the question of **the site of the future Australian Commonwealth capital** has resulted in favour of the Yass Canberra area, thus confirming the decision of the House of Representatives in favour of the same site. The House of Representatives decided in favour of the Yass Canberra area by 39 votes to 33.

TRADE WITH CANADA.

Mr. Richard Grigg was appointed by the Board of Trade to report on the **conditions and prospects of British trade in Canada.** Here are his chief conclusions:

1. **The geographical position of Canada,** and its contiguity to the United States, give American trade very great advantages, and impose correspondingly severe handicaps upon British trade.

2. **The preference enjoyed by the United Kingdom,** both in goodwill and in tariff treatment, is helpful in neutralising to some extent the geographical advantages which the United States enjoy, but is insufficient by itself to do more than check the decline in the United Kingdom's share of Canadian trade. The preference gives substantial aid to the United Kingdom in competition with European countries, but may be diminished at any time through the adoption of the newly established Intermediate Tariff.

3. Both British and American trade in Canada have to encounter the **growing rivalry of Canadian industries,** which, however, offer great opportunities (hitherto comparatively little used) for the investment of British capital.

4. **Much could be done to promote British trade with the Dominion by**—(a) The promotion of rapid and cheap transit and communication between the United Kingdom and Canada; (b) more careful study of Canadian conditions by British traders; (c) improvements in the representation of British merchants and manufacturers in Canada; (d) greater adaptability and exactness in meeting the wishes of Canadian buyers; (e) the adoption of Canadian standards, weights and measures and currency for specifications and price quotations; (f) better advertising and catalogues and cheaper postage rates; (g) more elasticity in terms of credit (rendered possible by fuller knowledge of local circumstances).

5. It is highly desirable to promote **mutual knowledge of commercial and industrial conditions by a system of British commercial correspondents in Canada,** and the wider distribution of commercial and trade reports, both official and other.

We are plainly told that British trade might be much larger if we were at more pains to consult the taste and needs of Canadians. For one thing, **the British manufacturer depends largely upon merchants and agents** for the distribution of his goods, and acts as though the only proper labour for himself were mere production.

"If this is not new (says the "Spectator"). it is nevertheless worth saying in so forcible a way. Since 1892 **the British share of the Canadian import trade has fallen from 35·5 per cent. to 24·5 per cent., while the American proportion has risen from 45·6 per cent. to 59·6 per cent.** Preference, though it may have modified this decline, has not done so in any serious sense. America has an enormous geographical advantage in the competition with Britain, and British merchants can only hope to hold Canadian markets by intelligence and enterprise, particularly as Mr. Grigg predicts that **our most mighty rival in the future will be Canada herself.**"

OUR TRADE IN NEW ZEALAND.

Mr. R. J. Jeffray was appointed by the Board of Trade to investigate **the conditions and prospects of British Trade in New Zealand.** Here are his summary and conclusions:

The Dominion of New Zealand presents a market which, though small in comparison with Canada, Australia, or South Africa, is yet considerable, is steadily expanding, and **presents great possibilities for the future.** In that market British merchants and manufacturers have by far the greatest share, and although that share did decline slowly for some years, the downward movement appears to have been checked since 1902.

This improvement is undoubtedly due in part to the greater **energy displayed by British manufacturers** and traders, who have succeeded in some instances in recovering ground which they had lost; and to some extent also to the **effect of the preferential arrangements made in 1903.** It may be noted that whilst the new tariff of New Zealand does not, except in a few cases, lower the barriers against imports from the United Kingdom and British Possessions, it increases the advantage which British traders enjoy over against their foreign rivals.

Nevertheless there is considerable and active foreign competition from the United States, Germany, France, and Belgium, and evidence of active efforts on the part of those countries to promote their trade with the Dominion. There are a few classes of goods which the United Kingdom might supply in which the trade is held almost entirely by foreign countries, but with the exception of certain goods for which the countries named have acquired a special reputation, such as agricultural and some other machinery, tools, and a few other metal manufactures from the United States, dress goods and some articles of apparel from France and Germany, and glass from Belgium. **the goods obtained from foreign countries are in the main either cheap lines with which British manufacturers—rightly or wrongly—have not cared to trouble themselves,** or miscellaneous articles and fancy goods of many kinds which were never important in British trade.

It appears then that with the exercise of reasonable vigilance and attention to the desires, and perhaps the prejudices, of the consumers, **there is no reason why British traders should not maintain and even improve their position in the New Zealand market.**

IMPERIAL INSTITUTE

The principal object of the Imperial Institute. South Kensington, is to promote the utilisation of the commercial and industrial resources of the Empire by arranging comprehensive exhibitions of natural products, especially of India and the Colonies, and providing for their investigation and for the collection and dissemination of scientific, technical. and commercial information relating to them.

Director: Prof. Wyndham R. Dunstan, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S.

WHAT HAS HAPPENED IN INDIA.

A YEAR OF UNREST.

India has had a disturbed year. The first of a long series of **bomb outrages** occurred on December 6th, 1907, when an **attempt was made to blow up a train** in which Sir Andrew Fraser, Lieut.-Governor of Bengal, Lady Fraser, the Governor's staff, and a number of police were travelling. A number of arrests were made, and of seven persons alleged to have been concerned in the attempt, one was sentenced in April to ten years' penal servitude, five to five years' penal servitude, and one was acquitted. It was stated by one of the prisoners that he had been **induced to attempt the outrage by an offer of 16s.**, which was never paid him. Sir Andrew's offence was that he had warned the Indian Government of the grave danger of showing weakness.

At a later date it was ascertained that an **organisation existed in India for the perpetration of bomb outrages directed against British officials.** The ringleaders appear to have lived abroad in Paris, British Columbia and the United States; but there were branches in several of the important Indian cities, amongst which, as events speedily showed, was Calcutta. An indication of the **general unrest** with which the year 1908 opened was the **frequency of forays** into British territory by the Frontier tribes, which resulted in February in an expedition carried out with great success by General Sir J. Willcocks to chastise the Zakkha Khel. The tribe submitted on February 29th.

In February there were **serious riots at Bombay,** due, however, not so much to disaffection as to the quarrels between two Mohammedan sects. The mob was fired upon, with the result that five natives were killed, and forty wounded.

In the same month, **Mr. Kingsford,** a magistrate at Calcutta, **sentenced the printers of two seditious native journals to severe terms of imprisonment and the payment of fines.** For this action he incurred the hostility of the anarchist societies, which determined to compass his death. In March there were serious **riots in Tinnevelli,** in Southern India. At the end of March the unrest spread to the **telegraph department,** where a strike occurred as the result of certain changes in the conditions of work. Messages were held up and wilfully delayed, and early in April there were 40,000 messages awaiting despatch. The strike was settled in April, the Government appointing a committee to inquire into the grievances of the operators.

On April 30th occurred a very grave **bomb outrage at Muzaffarpur.** Late in the evening, as two ladies, Mrs. and Miss Kennedy, were leaving the club in a carriage, a bomb was flung at them. It exploded with terrible effect, **inflicting mortal injuries on both the ladies.** Two young Bengalis were the perpetrators of this crime. One of them shot himself as he was being arrested; the other, Kudiram Bose, was tried, convicted, and **sentenced to death. It appeared that he had intended to kill Mr. Kingsford, and had mistaken the Kennedys' carriage for that of the magistrate.**

Immediately after this crime, the Calcutta police took action. They knew of the existence of a conspiracy, but were helpless to deal with it until the criminals had revealed their hand. On May 2nd a **series of police raids was made in Calcutta and the neighbouring district,** with the result that **large quantites of bombs and explosives were discovered in Harrison Road and at Manicktolla,** and a large number of arrests was made, including **Mr. Arabindo Ghose,** a young Hindu, educated in England, and formerly in the service of the Gaekwar of Baroda. It was ascertained that something resembling an **Anarchist college** existed. Meantime **fresh bomb outrages,** and the discovery of bombs at various points, showed that all the criminals and all the explosives had not been secured by the police. The **growing insecurity of Europeans** was illustrated by the fact that ten serious outrages against whites were recorded in May alone.

On June 8th two **Government Bills dealing with explosives and the seditious Press** were introduced, and passed in the same day by the Viceregal Council. The **Explosives Act** was almost identical with the British Act, dealing with the possession and manufacture of explosives for suspicious or unlawful purposes, passed in 1883. The **Press Act** dealt with papers publishing criminal incitements, and gave power to confiscate the printing presses and to stop the issue of the papers in question. But it also allow a **right of appeal to the High Court, which in practice prevented the prompt enforcement of the penalties.** To prove the necessity of the Press Act, a number of passages from the native journal, "**Jugantar,**" were read to the Viceregal Council condoning the Muzaffarpur murder and advocating the use of bombs.

On June 21st a fresh **bomb outrage of importance occurred at Barrackpur.** A bomb was thrown into a second-class compartment, seriously injuring three whites. At the same time a seditious pamphlet, signed "**Bande Mataram,**" was spread broadcast, **urging Hindus to celebrate the Diamond Jubilee of the Indian Mutiny by crushing the British in 1907.**

In May the **trial of the Calcutta Anarchists** and bomb-throwers began at Alipur, and in June one of the prisoners, **Narendro Nath Gossain, turned informer.** He was at once denounced by his father and threatened with death. Unfortunately, proper steps were not taken to protect him in prison, and on August 31st he **was shot dead by two fellow-prisoners,** both of whom were concerned in the bomb conspiracy. A search of the prisoners after this crime had been committed is said to have shown that no fewer than seven of those under detention were in the possession of revolvers. The murder of the informer was followed by **expressions of delight on the part of the Bengalis, and processions were formed to celebrate it in Calcutta.**

Some sensation was caused by an article published in the "Pioneer," **comparing the criminals with Harmodius and Aristogeiton.**

In November, a fresh attempt (the fourth) was made upon the life of Sir A. Fraser, happily without success, and on November 9th

the police inspector who had tracked the Muzaffarpur murderers was shot dead in Calcutta by three Bengalis.

Meantime, on June 24th, **Mr. B. G. Tilak** was arrested in Bombay on the charge of **publishing a seditious article** in the Poona native journal "Keseri," in which he accused the British bureaucracy by its insolence of having driven the Bengalis to excesses. On July 22nd he was **convicted** and sentenced to **six years' transportation**, but this sentence was afterwards commuted to one of six years' imprisonment in India. His conviction was followed by **serious riots in Bombay**, which were not quelled until the mob had been fired upon by the Bombay Volunteers. Several natives were killed or wounded. Sir George Clarke, the Governor of Bombay, addressed a meeting of prominent citizens, and expressed his disappointment at the fact that the authorities had not received either **moral support** or actual assistance from them.

During May, a **second Frontier expedition** became necessary to deal with the **Mohmands**. It was admirably conducted by Sir J. Willcocks, who rapidly cleared the Khaibar and inflicted severe punishment on the tribe. The operations concluded on May 29th.

The **scheme of reforms** at present under consideration by the Indian authorities consists of (1) the **institution of an imperial advisory council** composed of about sixty native members, who are to be men of position; (2) **provincial advisory councils of the same type**, to be nominated by the local government; (3) the **addition of nineteen native members to the Viceroy's Legislative Council**; and (4) the **addition of further native members to the Provincial Legislative Councils**. Further, **two nominated Indians** have actually been appointed to the **India Council**, one representing the Hindus and the other the Mohammedans.

Whatever the disaffection displayed by the Hindus in British territory, one feature of the year was the loyalty of the Native Princes and most of the Mohammedans. The Mohammedans of Calcutta and Madras expressed their detestation of the growing sedition, and congratulated the Government upon the passing of the Explosives and Press Offences Acts.

During the year a **large number of native editors or printers of seditious journals suffered severe punishment**. Among these were the editor and publisher of the "Kal," the editor of the "Vihari," the editors of the "Hind Swarajya" and of the "Swaraj," Mr. Hotilal Varma for sending a seditious telegram to the "Bande Mataram," and the editor of the "Harikishore." The sentences varied from imprisonment with fine to transportation for a long term of years.

In late September, Central India was visited by exceptional rains, which caused **terrible floods**, with the loss of 20,000 lives at Hyderabad.

On November 1st, 1908, the fiftieth anniversary of the proclamation of Imperial British rule in India, **a message from the King-Emperor** was read at the ancient Rajputana city of Jodhpur. It recited the benefits conferred upon India by British rule.

"The rights and privileges of the feudatory princes and ruling chiefs have been respected, preserved and guarded. . . . No man among my subjects has been favoured, molested, or disquieted by reason of his religious belief. . . . **All men have enjoyed protection of the law. The law itself has been administered without disrespect to creed or caste.**

"It is a paramount duty to **repress with a stern arm guilty conspiracies** that have no just cause and no serious aim. . . . Unwilling that this historic anniversary should pass without some signal mark of Royal clemency and grace, I have directed that . . . the **sentences** of persons whom our Courts have duly punished for offences against the law should be **remitted**, or in various degrees reduced."

The message then proceeded to foreshadow the **extension of representative institutions**, and to promise that the new measures of reform should be made known shortly. It concluded with a warm expression of regard for the **Indian troops**, and a promise of substantial appreciation "of their martial instincts, their splendid discipline, and their faithful readiness of service" on New Year's Day.

It is understood that **on New Year's Day far-reaching reforms will be announced**, of which the following will be the chief features: (1) The **feudatory princes will form an advisory council**. (2) A **native** will be appointed to the **Viceroy's Executive Council for the first time**. (3) The native element on the **provincial councils** will be increased, and the scope of the councils extended to economic questions. (4) The **pay of Indian troops will be increased**.

INDIAN STATISTICS.

When the Indian Budget was presented in the House of Commons on July 22nd, 1908, Mr. Buchanan reported a realised surplus for 1907 of £1,500,000; for 1908 the surplus is estimated at £500,000, and for 1909 £500,000. The **reduction in the salt tax** should have involved a loss of £3,250,000, but owing to the increased consumption there was only a deficit of £2,750,000 on this item. In 1902–3 the amount of salt which paid duty was 36,000,000 maunds. In 1908 it is estimated at 47,400,000 maunds.

There is also a **loss of £300,000 a year on opium**, which in ten years' time is to cease to be a source of revenue. The **famine** has cost £5,750,000; **military expenditure** an increase of £2,000,000; and expenditure on police, education, sanitary, and other services also show increases.

Customs duties have gone up from £3,800,000 to £4,800,000 in five years. Five years **merchandise on private account** shows an increase of 70 per cent.; in **imports** from £52,500,000 to £91,000,000; **exports** from £86,000,000 to £115,500,000—showing an **increase in totals** from £138,500,000 to £206,500,000. In five years **imported cotton** has risen from £20,250,000 to £32,000,000, and **cotton exports have risen** from £16,500,000 to £24,250,000.

The mortality from plague in the first six months of 1907 was 1,061,000; **in the six** months of 1908 it was 110,000.

THE PROBLEM OF INDIA.

LORD MORLEY'S STATEMENTS AND PLANS.

The problem of India to-day is how to meet the legitimate claims of Indians for a share in the government of their country. Here we gather together some of the main points in Lord Morley's speeches, for, as Secretary for India, in his hands is this great problem.

It was suggested to him that an **Imperial Duma** should be formed. To this he replied (Jan. 31st): "I have had the great good fortune and honour and privilege to have known some of the great Liberals of my time, and there was not one of those great men—Gambetta, Bright, Gladstone, anybody you like—who would have accepted for one single moment the doctrine on which is based the visionary proposition for a Duma. Is there any rational man who says that if you can lay down political principles and maxims of government that apply equally to Scotland, or to England, or to Ireland, or to France, or to Spain, therefore they must be true for the Punjab and the United Provinces? You have got to look at the whole mass of the great difficulties and perplexing problems connected with India from a common-sense plane, and it is not common-sense to talk of Imperial Dumas."

Lord Morley made an important statement of his views with regard to the present position of affairs in India to the **Indian Civil Service Club** (June 11th, 1908).

"Our first duty—the first duty of any Government," he said, "is to keep order. But first remember this. It would be idle to deny that there is at this moment, and there has been for some little time past, and very likely there will be for some time to come, **a living movement in the minds of those people for whom you are responsible.** A living movement, and **a** movement for what? **A movement for objects which we ourselves have all taught them to think desirable objects.** And unless we somehow or another can reconcile order with satisfaction of those ideas and aspirations, gentlemen, the fault will not be theirs. It will be ours.

"**It will mark the breakdown of what has never yet broken down in any part of the world—the breakdown of British statesmanship.** That is what it will do. Now, nobody, I think, believes that we can now enter upon an era of pure repression. **You cannot enter at this date, and with English public opinion, mind you, watching you, upon an era of pure repression, and I do not believe really that anybody desires any such thing.**"

In the House of Lords (June 30th), Lord Morley again made some important statements.

"Of course, one policy is very simple," he said. "It can be expressed in the pithy formula which I heard the other day—if I may be forgiven for using a profane expression: 'Martial law and no damned nonsense.' I think the Viceroy himself was better inspired. I admire the manful courage with which, in the very speech in which he was bringing in his Explosives Act and his Press Act, Lord Minto said: 'No anarchical crime will deter me from endeavouring to meet, as best I can, the political aspirations of honest reformers.' I think that is a very fine utterance—fine in itself and fine considering the occasion.

"**We have no choice but to persevere in the path of reform.** We cannot get out of our own history. We cannot leave the course marked out for us by the conscience of this country in dealing with what I am sorry to call alien races. In these days we cannot leave that out. I, for my part, accept the maxim of the French statesman who said, 'In politics you ought to take nothing tragically, everything seriously.' The House will not be surprised if I say that nobody in it views more seriously than I do the crisis—I do not believe that is too strong a word—by which we are now confronted. We can only surmount its dangers and difficulties by looking calmly and composedly at them.

"The Civil Service itself, the administrators great and small, will be as glad for an improvement, and are looking as anxiously for an improvement in administration as the ordinary politician. Therefore, if we were to take our hands from the plough now, because of bombs and operations of that species, we should be exposed not only to the fury, the blind fury if you please so to call it, of the extremists, not only to the lamentations of moderates, but we should be disappointing a great mass of strong Anglo-Indian European opinion.

"I am confident that, when we get the report **of the Hobhouse Commission,** when we get back from India **the scheme of reform,** with the opinion of local Governments of that scheme, we shall have before us a body of material, **not for the reconstruction of Indian government**—I, for my part, have no such ambition—but **for taking steps which shall do two or three very important or even momentous things.**

"One is **administrative improvements,** simplifying correspondence and appeals, and so on, simplifying the mass of writing which, as the noble lord knows, is one of the curses of Indian procedure. Secondly, we shall, I hope, and I feel confident, **do something to give the Indian population in all their grades some formal and authorised opportunity of handling some of their own affairs.** As at present advised, and subject to further consideration, **I would hope they will be not only advisory, but, though perhaps modest, executive powers.**

"**I do not believe that Parliament wishes either to be blind or deaf to any reasonable demands from India,** provided those demands are made and pressed in a reasonable way and are kept clear of madness and of wicked crimes; and if they are backed by the responsible Executive Government, I have no fear of those demands not being complied with."

Indian Press Act.—With regard to the Indian Press Act, passed by the Indian Government in 1908, Lord Morley said:

"This Act meddles with no criticism, however strong, of Government measures. It discourages the advocacy of no policy, social, moral, political, or economic. Yet I see, to my great regret and astonishment, that this Act is described as an Act for judging cases

of seditious libel without a jury. It is said, and I think quite rightly, that the voice of Parliament ought to be heard in so grave a matter as this. But the principles of the proposal were fully considered, as was quite right, not only by the Secretary of State in Council, but by the Cabinet. It was a matter of police urgency. That is my view of it.

"Do not think I am trying to find pleas to excuse this Act. Not a bit of it. I stand by it. But it is perfectly natural to say—Should the Imperial Parliament have no voice? I have directed the Government of India to report to the Secretary of State all the proceedings taken under this Act, and I undertake, as long as I hold the office of Secretary of State, to present to Parliament from time to time the reports of the proceedings taken under this somewhat drastic Act."

The Government's plans were also discussed by Mr. Buchanan in his Indian Budget speech to the Commons on July 22nd, 1908. Mr. Buchanan, after stating that every means would be taken to stamp out violence and outrage, said that **the problem is how to attract to our side the large numbers of educated Indians over whose political outlook a new spirit has come**:

"Some are frankly hostile to the maintenance of our rule, some are hostile but not frankly so. The majority, I believe, recognise the advantage to be obtained, and to be obtained under our rule. They know the disasters which would befall them were our rule removed: but many of them, at any rate, are not cordial. Can we bring them really to our side? Can we adopt British rule and British administration to the new ideas that are growing up in India? We may not be able to satisfy all their ideals. But to those who loyally accept the conditions of our rule we want to offer an active and real interest and responsibility in the concerns of their own people. That is the problem that is before us. It is not a simple or a single problem, and we cannot have a simple or a single solution of it. But if we can convince those most interested of the sincerity of our desire to solve it we shall have the assistance of all the moderate sections of the community."

He thus stated the policy of the Government in regard to meeting as far as possible the political aspirations of honest reformers:

"We should like to be able, on this fiftieth anniversary of the assumption of the government of India by the Crown, to take a real step forward. **It is not merely constitutional, but administrative reform in all its grooves that we have in view. We hope to do a great deal in the way of administrative improvement by simplifying and shortening its procedure, by limiting excessive official interference,** quite as much in the interest of the official as of the non-official class; and as a guiding principle in all that we do, **to endeavour to associate Indians more and more with the practical work of government.**"

The Viceroy, Earl Minto, in the speech to which Lord Morley referred (June, 1908), said:

"We all know, at least everyone who watches the daily story of Indian political life knows, **that the lines of Indian thought are changing, that embryo national aspirations are beginning to take shape,** and it will be a bad day for the British raj and a bad day for the people of this country if we ever allow the belief to spread that doctrines of murderous anarchy are even indirectly associated with the growth of those ambitions which British education has done so much to encourage.

"I am determined that no anarchical crimes shall for an instant deter me from endeavouring to meet, as best I can, **the political aspirations of honest reformers,** and I ask the people of India and all who have the future welfare of this country at heart to unite in support of law and order and to join in one common effort to eradicate cowardly conspiracy from our midst."

The difficulty (says the "Times" in discussing this problem) is to decide where to begin the work of decentralisation. Lord Curzon, in one of his Budget speeches, said:

"I believe in a strong Government of India gathering into its own hand and controlling all the reins." That remark has been severely criticised, but it will not do to dismiss it too lightly. If the contemplated changes resulted in the creation of strong provincial Governments, and a weak Government of India, the consequences might be deplorable from the Imperial point of view.

That the provincial Administrations have too little power of initiative and decision is probably true; but it is also probable that in their turn they exercise too detailed a control over their own district officers. They declaim against the intrusive influence of Simla and Calcutta, but the complaints of their own subordinates are even more bitter. The granting of a freer hand to district officers appears to be an essential part of any scheme which may be devised.

We are inclined to think, however, that no measure framed by Lord Morley will be really effective unless he commences his process of decentralisation beneath his own roof. A multitude of questions, particularly in matters of minor expenditure, are often referred home to the India Office which might very well be decided on the spot. Some experienced administrators think that the shortcomings of the Indian secretariats are of little account when compared with the incessant delay involved in seeking sanction in England.

That some measure of decentralisation is imperative in India few people are now prepared to deny.

LABOUR IN NEW ZEALAND.

The report of the Department of Labour of New Zealand for the year ended March 31st, 1908, shows continued industrial progress in that Dominion. Compared with the previous year there was **an increase of 798 factories and 3,315 employees.** In the last fourteen years the number of factories has increased from 4,109 to 11,586, and the number of factory workers from 29,879 to 78,625. The **total amount of wages** paid in factories was £5,319,019, compared with £4,831,037 in the previous year; and the average wage for 1907–8 was £67 13s., compared with £64 3s. in 1903–7. There were **577 accidents in factories,** of which 6 were fatal, against 679, including 16 fatal accidents, in 1906–7.

Attention is called to **the shortage of the labour supply caused by the great decrease in the birth-rate, which fell from an average of 41·32 per thousand in 1876–1880 to only 27·08 per thousand in 1908.**

CANADA'S GENERAL ELECTION.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier has been Premier of Canada for twelve years, and as he was triumphant at the General Election of 1908, he will hold office for another four years.

Canadian political history since 1867, the year of confederation, has been remarkable for the consistency with which the country has supported one Ministry for long terms of years (says the "Times"). The Parliamentary record of those forty-one years is indeed, to an extraordinary degree, the record of two great careers. **Sir John Macdonald** was Premier of the Dominion for eighteen years. From the time when he formed the first national Ministry to the day of his death, soon after his last great electoral victory, in 1891, he was only in opposition for four years. **Sir Wilfrid Laurier** first came to power in 1896, when he overthrew the Conservative majority left upon the Treasury benches by Sir John, and has remained in power firmly ever since. The two men seem to stand for two distinctive epochs in Canadian development.

It is, however, a curious feature of the present contest that Sir Wilfrid Laurier's personality, so far from being a dominating factor, is to some extent outside the conflict of forces upon which the election seems likely to turn. The leading issue in this campaign, perhaps for the first time in Canadian history, concerns in no way the external policy of the country, but purely the direction of its internal affairs. The chief line of assault adopted by Mr. Borden, the leader of the Opposition, has been upon the methods of Liberal administration during the last ten or twelve years. Those methods have not been above reproach, as there is evidence collected by nominees of the Liberal Government itself to show.

It is significant that Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself decided to stand as one of the candidates for Ottawa in the place of a Liberal supporter who seems to have obtained a timber concession which he sold within a short time for twenty-five times the amount paid by himself to the Government. The campaign literature of the Opposition is well supplied with transactions of this nature, which seem to be certified by official reports. A charge, moreover, is being levelled against the Government of having recklessly admitted during recent years of prosperity a large number of immigrants of an undesirable class.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier is not held to be personally associated in any way with the errors which are charged to his Administration. On the contrary, there appears to be a tendency to dissociate the Premier from the record of his Government.

AUSTRALIA'S LABOUR MINISTRY.

The Federal Government of Australia is now controlled by a **Labour Cabinet**, of which the **Hon. Andrew Fisher**, who once worked in the Ayrshire coal-mines with Mr. Keir Hardie, is Prime Minister and Treasurer. This Cabinet took office in November, 1908.

Mr. Deakin, the former Premier, had been kept in office by the Labour votes. his own party not being strong enough alone. **The three-party system has governed the situation** since the elections of 1903, and there have been four different Ministries since that date.

A Labour Cabinet has held power before in Australia under Mr. Watson, but it succumbed to a coalition of Deakinites and Reidites. That coalition came to an end over a tariff issue, and Mr. Deakin formed a new Government.

Its main purpose (says the "Times"), the enactment of a strongly protective tariff, is achieved, while it has been discovered that the proposal known as the New Protection, which seeks to secure the benefits of a high tariff to the working as well as the employing class, cannot be carried without an amendment of the Constitution of the Commonwealth. Mr. Deakin has laid proposals for such an amendment before the present Parliament; but the Labour Party, whether really or only nominally dissatisfied with the extent of these proposals, has made their inadequacy a ground for the definite withdrawal of its support from Mr. Deakin's Government.

So it comes about that the Labour Party is once more in power.

The result of the recent debate upon the vote of censure moved against the Government does not strengthen the belief that either Mr. Reid or any member of his party will prove able to form a coalition of Moderates against the Labour Party. Beyond a general negative attitude towards the Labour programme, there seems, in fact, to be no basis upon which such a coalition could be formed.

An Australian correspondent of the "Mail" says that "the crisis, although sprung upon the House, has been brewing for a considerable time. Nominally, the Labour Party has declared its dissatisfaction with the Government's 'New Protection' proposals, but the real reason of the desertion lies with the trade unions, who nominate and control the Labour men. Although Labour in Australia has won nearly all of its victories by holding the balance of power and granting office to rival parties in return for concessions, there has always been a strong body opposed to this procedure.

"The individuals comprising this hostile section have repeatedly **declared for a Labour Government or straight-out opposition, and for the moment they are in the ascendant.** They are impatient of keeping in office a party considerably weaker than themselves. They say: 'If we are to remain in alliance with the Deakinites, let us have the reins. We outnumber the Deakinites by 30 or 40 per cent. Why shou'd they have all the sweets of office? If we can't have office we shall go into direct opposition.'"

SOUTH AFRICAN FEDERATION.

"**Three choices lie before the people of South Africa.** The makeshift régime of the High Commissioner, the jarring separation of the States of South America, the noble union of the States of North America." So declared **Lord Selborne,** the High Commissioner for South Africa, in an important memorandum on South African federation, which embodied an historical survey of the whole question, with specific treatment of fiscal, labour, and railway problems, and urged that these problems cannot be solved except by federation, which cannot be long postponed.

"What South Africa requires more than anything else," he said, "is stability—stability in political conditions, stability in economic conditions, stability in industrial conditions. But true stability will remain impossible so long as there are five Governments in South Africa, each developing a different system in all branches of public life, and each a potential antagonist of the other, but not one national Government with authority to harmonise the whole. South Africa can only be wisely and successfully governed by a South African Government responsible to the South African Parliament, elected by the South African people."

Lord Selborne pointed out what a field thickly sown with the seeds of quarrel and strife are the railway systems of South Africa; that the farmers are molested by pests; that the mining industry lacks labour. All of these things might be remedied, he believed, by harmony of control throughout South Africa.

The sequel to this memorandum is a **Convention consisting of delegates of all the South African Governments** which has been sitting at Durban. The sentiment for South African unity is strong. **Sir Henry de Villiers,** the Chief Justice of Cape Colony, who presided over the Convention, is in favour of unification as against federation. He does not desire State Legislatures as well as the Federal Legislature.

THE ZULUS' GRIEVANCES.

A very important Commission to investigate the condition of native affairs in Natal was appointed in 1906–7, and their report was published as an English Blue Book in 1908. The commissioners remark that the condition and temper of the natives in Zululand were in marked contrast to what exists generally throughout Natal.

This, they think, is to be attributed solely to the fact that they have been left more to themselves, and have not been suffering from the exactions of the landlords. Still, they were **apprehensive in several districts about the alienation of their lands for European occupation, a policy which undoubtedly contains the germs of unrest.**

At least 5,500 natives, including chiefs and headmen, attended and gave evidence—some of it of a very tragic character. **The Commission summarises the special complaints of the natives in these terms,** and makes a number of suggestions for their mitigation:

(1) Excessive rents on private lands.

(2) Improper interference by Europeans with females.

(3) Diminished controlling power by chiefs, and especially kraal heads.

(4) Multiplicity of passes, and delays in obtaining them.

(5) Greater facilities for exemption and inclusion of children thereunder by descent.

(6) Elevation of half-castes to legal status of Europeans.

(7) Representation—the mass preferring (significantly in Zululand) a guardian, or recognised spokesman, for advocacy or communication with Government; the more advanced seeking direct Parliamentary representation by Europeans.

(8) Inadequate facilities for education.

(9) Insufficient promulgation of laws.

(10) Want of consideration, and delays at public offices and on the railways.

(11) Compulsory labour on public works.

Dinizulu, the son of Cetewayo, has been under arrest since December 10th, 1907, on charges of treason. Towards the end of 1907 the Natal Government took drastic action in Zululand in consequence of the unrest among the tribesmen and the number of serious crimes alleged to have been committed in various districts. There was reason to suspect a secret combination for the murder of chiefs and others who had been loyal to the Government during the recent rebellion.

Martial law was proclaimed and the Natal Militia mobilised. Dinizulu, suspected of complicity in the seditious movement, was summoned by Colonel Sir Duncan M'Kenzie to surrender. He did so on December 10th, and was taken to Pietermaritzburg, where he was kept in confinement pending the examination preliminary to the trial.

The salary of £500 a year, which he receives so long as his attitude towards the British power remains above reproach, was stopped by the Natal Government; but, in response to strong representations in the House of Commons, it was paid by the Imperial Government, the Colonial Secretary holding that the stoppage was unwarranted. Complaints were made at intervals by Dinizulu's counsel and by Miss Colenso, his constant supporter, that the examination was unduly delayed, and that difficulties were being placed in the way of the defence; but the Natal Government insisted that the procedure adopted was unavoidable in the interest of the Colony.

Dinizulu, who was defended by Mr. W. P. Schreiner, was brought up for trial before a special court at Greytown on November 10th, 1908. The original twenty-three counts were reduced to a single indictment of high treason, against which Dinizulu pleaded not guilty.

BRITISH INDIANS IN THE TRANSVAAL.

The controversy between the Transvaal Government and the community of British Indians in that colony reached an acute stage in 1908. There are no indentured Indian coolies in the Transvaal, the Indians who are insisting on their rights as settlers being free immigrants and belonging largely to the class of small traders.

At the end of 1907 the position was that large numbers of them (including their leader, **Mr. Gandhi, an able lawyer**) were in prison for non-compliance with the Registration Law (Act 2 of 1907). This law was objected to (a) on the ground of its compulsive and, as they alleged, degrading provisions, and (b) because it contravened Lord Milner's promise that no further registration would be required from Indians who had already submitted to voluntary registration.

The main contention of the Transvaal Government was that the law was necessary because Indians who could not claim the qualification of pre-war residence were being smuggled into the colony.

At the beginning of 1908 Mr. Gandhi was invited to communicate to the Government proposals for a way out of the difficulty. This was done, with the result that a compromise was arrived at, the Indian leaders pledging themselves to see that all Indians then in the Transvaal and having the pre-war qualification should **voluntarily register themselves within three months.** The pledge was fulfilled, and Mr. Ghandi then called upon the Government to carry out their part of the compact, namely, the repeal of the Registration Act. Mr. Smuts, the Transvaal Colonial Secretary, denied that he had given any such promise; but he afterwards undertook that the Registration Act should be repealed if the Indians would agree to a modification of the Immigration Restriction Act, which, in effect, would relegate all non-registered Asiatics to the category of prohibited immigrants, thereby **shutting the door in future upon all immigration from India.**

This was not agreed to, the Indian leaders maintaining that the Restriction Act did not enter into the bargain; their quarrel was with the Registration Act, which seeks to brand British Indians as undesirables and gives legal sanction to their existing disabilities. Since the middle of 1908 the passive resistance movement has again been in full swing, Mr. Gandhi and some 900 Indians having been imprisoned.

On behalf of the Transvaal it is contended that the Indian leaders have made a change of front and are now demanding the right of unrestricted entrance to the colony. This statement, however, is met by an unequivocal denial, Mr. Gandhi and his supporters insisting that, so far from making any such claim, they have all along expressed their willingness to agree to the admission of not more than six educated Indians yearly.

The Indian cause has been ably championed in England by Lord Ampthill, Sir M. Bhownaggree, Mr. Harold Cox, M.P., and others, and at the time of going to press the Colonial and India Offices were engaged in seeking a solution which, while securing justice to the Indian settlers, should receive the support of Colonial sentiment.

THE PROBLEM OF SUBJECT RACES.

The problem of subject races has been much discussed during the past year. A writer in the "Edinburgh Review" discusses it.

"What should be the profession of faith of a sound but reasonable Imperialist?" he asks. "He will not be possessed with any secret desire to see the whole of Africa or of Asia painted red on the maps. He will entertain not only a moral dislike, but also a political mistrust of that excessive earth-hunger which views with jealous eyes the extension of other and neighbouring European nations. He will have no fear of competition.

"It may be said that the whole, or nearly the whole, of the essential points of a sound Imperial policy admit of being embodied in this one statement, that, whilst steadily avoiding any movement in the direction of official proselytism, our relations with the various races who are subjects of the King of England should be founded on the granite rock of the Christian moral code."

Mr. Lyttelton put the issue in a striking way: "Whether this country could continue indefinitely to support the self-governing Colonies in the policy of Asiatic exclusion was a question which gave one serious reason for pause. In effect, the pretension of the Western nations was that they should freely compete throughout the whole East upon terms of absolute equality with the inhabitants of those lands, while the Easterns were to have no access whatever to the West, or to those portions of it where their competition was likely *to be formidable.* That pretension brought them into a strange and rather serious region of thought. '**Free competition in your land; monopoly in ours**'—that was the doctrine. Such a principle could only be maintained and asserted by force."

OUR PROTECTORATES AND ASIATICS.

Sir Godfrey Lagden, the late Commissioner for Native Affairs in the Transvaal, declares that "**it is manifestly impolitic to graft the religious caste of Hindustan upon the wild African fetish**" ("Nineteenth Century," October, 1908). He says that "**preservation of the purity of races should be our aim.**" He objects to the immigration of Indians to Africa, and argues thus:

"(1) All experience shows that the introduction of aliens into a colony with an indigenous population to meet temporary demands for labour, or for other purpose, without rigid provision for repatriation, has produced disastrous results wherever it has been attempted.

"(2) East Africa—a case in point—is young, and fulfils many of the conditions which attract the European race as regards altitude, climate, pursuits, and possibilities.

"(3) The aboriginal races in occupation, whose cause stands in need of representation, are multiplying fast, and are forming an indigenous nationalism of their own under our guidance. We are stimulating them to improve and to be industrious; we have no right to cramp their material development and stifle their hopes by bequeathing their natural field of expansion to competitors alien in characteristics and language, with whom they cannot fuse."

ORIENTALS IN CANADA.

THE PROBLEM OF WHITE COLONIES.

One of the great problems of the future concerns the admission of Imperial subjects into various parts of the same Empire. Objection is raised in many of the colonies to the admission of Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and other Oriental people—the objection mainly being an economic one.

Australia demands a white Australia; **South Africa** refuses to admit any more Indians; **Canada** is of the same mind. Such exclusion means that citizenship of the Empire does not necessarily involve right of residence in any part of it.

HERE THE CASE OF CANADA IS STATED:

Notwithstanding the regulations already existing for the restriction of immigration from the Orient to Canada, certain classes of immigrants, particularly British East Indians, were still being induced to go. The Canadian Privy Council declared that "experience has shown that **immigrants of this class,** having been accustomed to the conditions of a tropical climate, **are wholly unsuited to this country,** and that their inability to readily adapt themselves to surroundings so entirely different inevitably brings upon them much suffering and privation; also, that were such immigration allowed to reach any considerable dimensions, it would result in a serious disturbance to industrial and economic conditions in portions of the Dominion, and especially in the province of British Columbia.

"**An effective restriction of immigration from India is desirable,** therefore, not less in the interest of the East Indians themselves, than in the interests of the Canadian people.

"That, moreover, **the whole subject of Oriental immigration is one of first concern to Canada,** and affecting, as it does, the relations of the Dominion with foreign powers, and the relations of our people with fellow British subjects in India, involves considerations of the highest importance, not only to Canada but to the British Empire as a whole."

This being so, **Mr. Wm. Mackenzie King, C.M.G.,** late Deputy Minister of Labour, and one of Canada's coming men, was sent to England to discuss this matter with the home authorities. In May, 1908, he made a report on his visit to Lord Elgin, Sir Edward Grey, and Lord Morley, in which he declared that "a satisfactory understanding of the situation had been reached **in so far, at least, as an appreciation of Canada's position in regard to Oriental immigration is concerned, and as may serve to prevent such immigration from India as may not be desirable in the interests either of the natives of the country or of the peoples of Canada."**

Mr. Wm. Mackenzie King made a confidential report to the Canadian Government, and in a published report set out the main **features which it was** desirable to make public. **He said**:

"The question of the migration of peoples of the Orient, and the problems to which it gives rise, whether it be in connection with immigration or emigration as between different parts of the British Empire, or between portions of the British Empire and foreign countries, is by no means a new one to the British authorities. **Australasia, South Africa, and India have each forced a consideration of the subject upon the attention of British statesmen for years past.** Of the outlying dominions, Canada's experience has been the most recent, though in kind, the issues and possibilities involved are much the same. As between Great Britain and Canada the effect of this is not without its advantage to the Dominion. It has afforded in England a ready appreciation of Canada's position, and an understanding of the sort of considerations of which it is necessary to take account. **That Canada should desire to restrict immigration from the Orient is regarded as natural, that Canada should remain a white man's country is believed to be not only desirable for economic and social reasons, but highly necessary on political and national grounds.**

"With this general view is also held the particular one that in matters which so vitally affect her own welfare, **Canada is the best judge of the course to be adopted,** and that as a self-governing dominion she cannot be expected to refrain from enacting such measures in the way of restriction as in the discretion of her people are deemed most expedient. As a corollary to this right of self-government is the understanding that **British international alliances, and British connection, place no restrictions on the right of the Dominion to legislate as may be most desirable in matters affecting immigration.** Whilst Canadian autonomy is thus fully conceded and respected, Canada's position as part of the British Empire is regarded as affording a sufficient guarantee that **the exercise of her plenary powers in this particular will not be without a due regard to the obligations which citizenship within the Empire entails.**

"The attitude of the Canadian Government, as evidenced by the present mission, was regarded as affording a most welcome and opportune expression of Canada's recognition of her responsibilities. **Nothing could have** been more cordial than the appreciation, everywhere expressed, that in a matter so vitally affecting the interests of British subjects in remote parts of the Empire, Canada should have been the first to seek a conference with the parts affected, that the several policies might be brought into harmony and the wiser counsels of conciliation made to prevail.

"**The variegated character of the British Empire** is in no particular, perhaps, more fully exemplified than in the circumstance that within its confines are to be found all the features which the problem of Oriental immigration presents.

"It was clearly recognised in regard to emigration from India to Canada that **the native of India is not a person suited to Canada,** that, accustomed as many of them are to the conditions of a tropical climate, and possessing manners and customs so unlike those of our own people, their inability to readily adapt themselves to surroundings entirely different could not do other than entail an amount of privation and suffering which render a

discontinuance of such immigration most desirable in the interests of the Indians themselves. It was recognised, too, that the competition of this class of labour, though not likely to prove effective, if left to itself, might none the less, were the numbers to become considerable (as conceivably could happen were self-interest on the part of individuals to be allowed to override considerations of humanity and national well-being and the importation of this class of labour under contract permitted) occasion considerable unrest among working men whose standard of comfort is of a higher order, and who, as citizens with family and civic obligations, have expenditures to meet and a status to maintain which the coolie immigrant is in a position wholly to ignore."

In Mr. King's report (Cd. 4118) he fully sets out **the cause of immigration from India, and methods adopted to restrict immigration:**

"Of itself **the Indian Emigration Act,"** he says, "solves the problem, so far as it relates to the importation of contract labour from India to Canada, and this is the one class to be feared, since without some agreement to labour it is hardly to be expected that the number of immigrants will be large. To render this law wholly effective so far as Canada is concerned, it would be sufficient to prohibit the landing in Canada of immigrants who come in violation of the laws of their own country.

"Whilst effective as a means of restricting a class of immigration unsuited to Canada, it will be apparent that the arrangement as herein set forth is one which finds its justification on grounds of humanity as strong as are the the economic reasons by which it is also supported. **The liberty of British subjects in India is safeguarded rather than curtailed, the traditional policy of Britain in respect to the native races of India has been kept in mind, and the necessity of enacting legislation either in India or in Canada which might appear to reflect on fellow British subjects in another part of the Empire has been wholly avoided.**

"Nothing could be more unfortunate or misleading than that the impression should go forth that Canada, in seeking to regulate a matter of domestic concern, is not deeply sensible of the obligations which citizenship within the Empire entails. It is a recognition of this obligation which has caused her to adopt a course which, by removing the possibilities of injustice and friction, is best calculated to strengthen the bonds of association with the several parts, and to promote the greater harmony of the whole. In this, as was to be expected, Canada has had not only the sympathy and understanding, but the hearty co-operation of the authorities in Great Britain and India as well."

JAPAN AND CANADA.

Not only Indians, but Japanese, have emigrated to Canada. As a result of the trouble with Japanese immigrants in British Columbia, Mr. Lemieux, the Canadian Minister of Labour, went to Japan to arrange the matter with the Japanese Government.

The immigration of Japanese to Canada is due to the exertion of emigration companies. As a result of Mr. Lemieux's visit, the Japanese Government will investigate the credentials of those Japanese who wish to enter Canada as students. Emigration to Hawaii and Mexico is to be prohibited. It was difficult, as Mr. Lemieux said, to "ask the friend and ally of Great Britain to brand its subjects as an inferior race, which they were not."

Here are the terms of the actual document which Mr. Lemieux arranged with Count Hayashi, the Japanese Foreign Minister:

"I have the honour to state that, although the existing treaty between Japan and Canada absolutely guarantees to Japanese subjects full liberty to enter, travel, and reside in any part of the Dominion of Canada, yet it is not the intention of the Imperial Government to insist upon the complete enjoyment of the rights and privileges guaranteed by those stipulations when that would involve disregard of special conditions which may prevail in Canada from time to time.

"Acting in this spirit, and having particular regard to the circumstances of the recent occurrence in British Columbia, the Imperial Government have decided to take efficient means to restrict emigration to Canada. In carrying out this purpose, the Imperial Government, in pursuance of the policy above stated, will give careful consideration to the local conditions prevailing in Canada, with a view to meeting the desires of the Government of the Dominion, as far as is compatible with the spirit of the treaty and the dignity of the State.

"Although, as stated in the Note under reply, it was not possible for me to acquiesce in all of the proposals made by you on behalf of the Canadian Government, I trust that you will find the statement herein made a proof of the earnest desire of the Imperial Government to promote by every means within their power the growth and stability of the cordial and mutually beneficial relations which exist between our countries. I venture to believe also that this desirable result will be found to have been materially advanced by the full exchange of views which has taken place between us, and it gives me special pleasure to acknowledge the obligation under which I have been placed by your frank and considerate explanations regarding the attitude and wishes of your Government."

CANADA AND THE NAVY.

The policy of the Canadian Navy League is that Canada should have its own navy, and not contribute to the Empire's fleet. The League has offered £80 for the best essay, not exceeding 6,000 words, on "Shall Canada Have a Navy of Her Own ?"

One of the Canadian papers says: "In time of war that (Canadian) navy would be under the control of the British admirals, just as our soldiers in South Africa were under the command of the British generals. It all seems so perfectly simple to a 'colonial' mind, but the average Britisher does not seem to grasp it. He thinks that if we were half as British as we are said to be, we would send money over to London to help relieve the British taxpayer. This man has not yet learned the lesson which was taught between 1776 and 1783, nor has he learned the peculiar attitude which makes a 'colonial' sing 'God Save the King.'"

SOCIALISTS AND THE EMPIRE.

THEIR POLICY FOR INDIA AND EGYPT.

Mr J. Ramsay Macdonald, M.P., writing in the "Daily Mail" (Jan. 31st, 1908) on "Do Socialists Propose to Disintegrate the Empire?" outlined the Socialist policy towards the Empire.

The Socialist (he said) does not waste his time discussing whether there ought or ought not to be a British Empire. **There is a British Empire, and he sets about considering what policy he has to adopt regarding it.** He does not share what are called "Imperialist" views, because he has observed that those views are based upon a misconception of what the Colonies think and feel, as has been evidenced recently in the comical fiasco of Imperial Preference. Also, he opposes the Imperialist of to-day because the Imperialist has no real Imperial spirit. He is simply a race-conscious bundle of emotions, without a more intelligent policy than that anything which a Britisher does is right. This conception of the Empire is disruptive and Anarchistic, however patriotic it may sound in perorations.

The Socialist begins his consideration of Imperial problems by reminding himself that the **Empire is composed of two kinds of States fundamentally different in character**—the self-governing Dominions and the subject provinces.

As he looks forward to great federations of nations in the future, there is nothing obnoxious to him in Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and a South African Federation flying the same flag, enjoying the rights of self-government within their own boundaries, and having a common world policy and a common conception of justice.

He is not in favour of Imperial Federation, because he does not believe that either the Colonies or the Mother Country will accept the responsibilities of federation, nor does he believe that an Imperial Federal Parliament can be created with real Imperial authority. He considers that an Imperial Council would also be a mere glorified Committee without authority. Indeed, until the self-governing States are willing to subordinate themselves to a central authority and take their full share of the cost of Imperial defence, the Socialist does not see how either an Imperial Parliament or Council can be safely or wisely created. He is wise enough to recognise that the self-governing Colonies show no intention of putting their necks through this yoke.

The Socialist would, therefore, favour a loose Imperial bond, and express his Imperial unity by conferences of Premiers, which would not be festive and partisan—more than can be helped!—but be genuinely consultative.

When we examine **the self-governing Dominions** to ascertain whether their allegiance could be secured were a Labour Government in office at home we find no reason to fear. The Liberalism of **Canada** tends more and more to become a blend of Liberalism and Labour; and the healthy revolt against the plutocracy of the United States which one finds in the Dominion will aid that tendency. **New Zealand** has been governed by a Liberalism so Socialistic that it has hitherto absorbed every attempt to start an Independent Labour movement in the colony. **Australia** has had a Labour Premier, and its present Government could not exist for an hour if it failed to do the bidding of the Labour Party. The predominant settled interests of **South Africa**, apart from the mining magnates, are pleased in proportion as the Home Government is democratic.

There is nothing either in Socialist theory or in the condition of the self-governing States that would lead to the disintegration of the Empire should a Government rule at Westminster in which Socialists held office.

What of the Dependencies?

No one can seriously say that the withdrawal of Great Britain from **India** would aid the peace of the world or leave India free to develop herself independently of an overlord. Therefore Great Britain must remain in India. The national movement in India is not opposed to our remaining there; it only presents a claim for a larger measure of self-government. Of **Egypt** now, one must come to the same conclusion. The Indian and Egyptian problem is therefore, not how to get out, but how to start native institutions of government and allow them to develop on native lines. After a certain point certain things that are done cannot be undone. Blunders take root.

The same must be said of our other Dependencies. We have destroyed native civilisation—as, for instance, in **Fiji** and **Africa**; we have broken up native tribal and religious solidarity. To leave the natives to themselves would be criminal. We have to try to repair by understanding, by sympathising, by encouraging them to establish institutions under which they can live. At present they are dying under our rule. Thus it is that the Socialist criticism of recent proceedings in **Natal** has been made, because the Socialist has a keen sense of national honour and views with shame the discreditable methods of Natal native rule.

The international Socialist Congress at Stuttgart discussed this question. While Socialists are the attacking parties in national politics they very properly retain as long as they can the advantage of a purely negative position of offence. The resolution which was passed at Stuttgart, in the teeth of the German, Dutch, Belgian, and the majority of the British vote, was therefore on the whole negative. But it contained an admission that the wealth of the tropics should be placed at the disposal of the rest of the world.

The Socialist can condemn as strongly as he did at Stuttgart the **capitalist exploitation of Dependencies.** It has been disgraceful. But if he were in office to-morrow he need not, so far as his principles are concerned, withdraw a single governor or close a single department of the Colonial Office. He would only try to put more intelligence into the problem of how to be the custodian of native races, and would appoint more governors of the stamp of Sir Sydney Olivier. And the majority of Socialist representatives of the countries with colonies knew that, and voted accordingly at Stuttgart.

SECTION 6.
FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

THE DRAMA OF THE BALKANS.
EVENTS WHICH LED TO THE TURKISH REVOLUTION.

The dramatic events of the summer and autumn of 1908 have brought the eternal Eastern Question once more into the foreground of European politics. The European situation, which for some years has appeared to hinge upon Morocco, turns once more, as so often in the past, on the Near East.

During the long periods in which the Eastern question appears to slumber, it is to a large extent forgotten by the British public; yet there is no foreign question in the last hundred years which has so vitally affected British politics as the Eastern question.

Canning's campaign for Greek independence and the Battle of Navarino in 1827, the Crimean War, the great events of the Berlin Congress in 1878, the excitements of Mr. Gladstone's Midlothian Campaign and the fall of Disraeli in 1880, and Lord Rosebery's resignation of the leadership of the Liberal Party in 1896, all bear witness **to the insistence of the Eastern question**; and now once more the whole of Europe is occupied with it, and the tremendous issues of war and peace are in the balance.

It must be admitted that the question is intricate and somewhat confusing for the ordinary public, owing to the number of states and interests involved, and still more owing to the great racial medley in the Balkan Peninsula.

Briefly stated, the Balkan problem—which leaves on one side the question of Armenia, since Armenia is in Asiatic Turkey—is concerned with the future of Turkey-in-Europe, with the states and provinces which were at one time under Turkish rule, and with the principality of Montenegro, which has always maintained its freedom.

Turkey-in-Europe now consists of **Albania**, on the west; **Macedonia**, in the centre; and the vilayets, or administrative provinces, of **Adrianople and Constantinople, on the east.**

South of Turkey the **Kingdon of Greece** is passionately concerned in the solution of the problem; while to the north lie **Montenegro**, the two provinces of **Bosnia and Herzegovina**, which were occupied by Austria-Hungry in 1878, and annexed in 1908; **Servia**; and **Bulgaria**; north of Bulgaria, in the Carpathians and not in the Balkans, lies the kingdom of **Roumania**, which was also at one time part of the Turkish Empire, and claims now to have its interests considered in any alterations in the map of South-Eastern Europe.

The year 1908 saw a great and wonderful reform movement in Turkey, which has attracted widespread sympathy in Great Britain; but it is beyond dispute that the Eastern Question has always owed its existence to Turkish misgovernment of the subject races. No European race, with the doubtful exception of the **Albanians, who have never really been subdued, has ever hitherto found Turkish rule tolerable.**

The Greeks fought free in the days of Byron, and, with the assistance of Russia, France and England, obtained their independence in 1830. In 1881, as a result of the Treaty of Berlin, Greece acquired Thessaly. Servia obtained internal autonomy in 1820, actual independence and an increase of territory in 1878, and in 1882 proclaimed itself a kingdom. The two principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia were united in 1861 as the **principality of Roumania**. By the Treaty of Berlin, Roumania's independence was recognised, and acquired the Doubruja; in 1881 it declared itself a kingdom. By the Treaty of Berlin, also, **Montenegro** obtained an extension of territory, **Bosnia and Herzegovina** passed to Austria-Hungary, while the new tributary principality of Bulgaria was created. **Crete** obtained complete autonomy in 1897.

The Crimean War was fought by England and France to preserve the integrity of Turkey, and this might be thought to give them a claim to intervene in its internal affairs to such an extent as might be necessary to prevent the Government, whose existence they preserved, from oppressing the people it was allowed to govern. No such stipulation was made in the Treaty of Paris, as the Sultan of those days attempted to forestall any action of the kind by issuing the famous Hatti-Hamayan of February, 1856.

TREATY OF PARIS.

Article 9 of the Treaty of Paris took cognisance of this in the following words:

"His Imperial Majesty, the Sultan, having, in his constant solicitude for the welfare of his subjects, issued a Firman which, while ameliorating their condition without distinction of religion or of race, records his generous intentions towards the Christian population of his empire, and wishing to give a further proof of his sentiments in that respect, has resolved to communicate to the Contracting Parties the said Firman, emanating spontaneously from his sovereign will. The Contracting Parties recognise the high value of this communication."

It is difficult to acquit Article 9 of being a piece of diplomatic sarcasm, as of course the communication referred to in Article 9 was of no value whatever. Within a year, Lord Clarendon, the British Foreign Secretary, writing to the British ambassador at the Porte in reference to the persecution of the Christian population, spoke of "the utter inutility of appealing on such matters to the Porte." He added: "The Turkish Government should be made aware that if this systematic misgovernment and persecution of Christians, and violations of engagements continue, it will be impossible to arrest the progress of the opinion which is now manifesting itself that Mohammedan rule is incompatible with civilisation and humanity, and can no longer be endured."

Twenty years of respite were, however, allowed to Turkey in which to set her house in order and carry out the promises of the Hatti-Hamayan. Outrage, massacre, and the ordinary incidents of Turkish rule continued, although the British Government administered many rebukes and addressed frequent warnings. In 1875 one of the periodic crises in Turkish misrule was reached. Systematic oppression at last stimulated insurrection in the European

provinces, and the insurrection was crushed with the accustomed brutalities.

Bosnia and Herzegovina were the centres of insurrection in 1875. Austria, Russia and Germany attempted to mediate between the **rebels** and the Porte, and advised the former to lay down their arms; but the British Government under Lord Beaconsfield, then Mr. Disraeli, who had strong Turkish sympathies, stood aloof from this combination and advised the Porte to suppress the insurrection as rapidly as possible. The advice was carried out in a sense and with a thoroughness which the British Government could never have contemplated, and wholesale butchery and outrages took place.

GLADSTONE'S PAMPHLET.

In the month of May, 1876, the Turks **began a series of appalling massacres in Bulgaria.** Authentic news came slowly, but eventually the terrible details became known; and in September Mr. Gladstone published his famous denunciatory pamphlet, which roused public opinion in England in a manner which has rarely been paralleled. The political situation was, however, soon complicated by the action of Russia. From the days of Catherine II. it has always been Russia's rôle to appear as the champion of the Christian subjects of the Porte, and more especially of the Slav Christians. She now urged the concert of Europe to interfere in order to stop the massacres, and proposed that she herself should occupy Bulgaria, and that an international fleet representing all the Great Powers, should go to the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus. Other Powers were willing to accept this proposal, but the British Government refused both this and a further Russian proposal for combined action by sea without territorial occupation. Instead, Mr. Disraeli's Government put forward a proposal for a conference at Constantinople, which was accepted.

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR.

In the same year the new Sultan, Abdul Hamid, attempted to counter the efforts of Europe to imp reform on Turkey by **granting a constitution, on the advice of Midhat Pasha.** No attempt, however, was made to stop the disorders and the outrages in the provinces, and when the Turkish Parliament met, the Sultan, finding it displayed a greater spirit of independence than was congenial to him, quickly dismissed it. Lord Salisbury, the British envoy at the Conference, strove hard to extract some guarantees for reform from the Porte; but the Sultan, relying upon English hostility to Russia, definitely refused to give any, with the result that the Conference broke up, Lord Salisbury leaving Constantinople in indignation. **The Russo-Turkish War followed,** and Turkey was beaten both in Asia and in Europe.

The advance of Russia produced profound alarm in England. Publi n, which had been roused to sympathy with the sufferings the European subjects of the Porte by Mr. Gladstone's eloquence, was now turned into another channel. Indian sepoys were brought to Malta, and a British fleet was despatched to Turkish waters, and, as the Russians advanced, it finally proceeded to Constantinople. In face of this new enemy, Russia stopped at the very gates of the imperial city, and dictated terms to her beaten foe at San Stefano, within sight of Constantinople.

With one exception, the main points of **the Treaty of San Stefano** differed little from those subsequently embodied in the Treaty of Berlin. The exception concerned **Bulgaria, which was now called into existence as a state.** According to the San Stefano Treaty, **Macedonia was to be included in Bulgaria,** whose southern frontier was to come down to the Ægean. The treaty, however, required the ratification of Europe, and, as the British Government was opposed to the "Big Bulgaria," **the historic Congress of Europe was summoned to meet at Berlin.**

BERLIN TREATY.

The British envoys were Mr. Disraeli and Lord Salisbury, and, chiefly as a result of their very definite attitude, Macedonia was restored to the Turks, the small principality of Bulgaria was created, while **Eastern Rumelia**, which is now Southern Bulgaria, was given autonomy under a Turkish governor. The other alterations made in the map have already been indicated.

The British Government, by a separate agreement with the Porte, leased the **island of Cyprus,** and, in return, undertook to protect the northern frontier of Turkey-in-Asia from attack. **A secret agreement, which was not divulged till 1908, was also made between Austria-Hungary and Turkey,** by which Austria-Hungary undertook not to alter the juridical status of Bosnia and Herzegovina from that laid down in the Treaty of Berlin—that is to say, she was to occupy the country, but it was still to be considered part of the Turkish Empire.

British policy in 1878 was entirely dominated by the fear of Russian aggression. Mr. Disraeli was fully convinced that the new Slav state of Bulgaria would have no real independence of Russia, but would simply be her tool. In his view, the **Big Bulgaria** meant the descent of Russia to the Ægean, and in a short time to Constantinople. Mr. Gladstone, on the other hand, held that it was in the interests of humanity that Bulgaria should be as large as possible, and that a free Bulgaria would not be the instrument of Russia, but a buffer between her and the sea. "The best barrier lies in the breasts of free men," was the phrase in which he summarised this view.

Events speedily proved that Mr. Disraeli was right in his suspicions of Russian aims, while Mr. Gladstone was right in his prophecy of the future. The Russian Government speedily attempted to dragoon the new state, but its methods were so insulting that opposition was at once aroused in Bulgaria, and a national party was very quickly formed.

BIG BULGARIA.

In 1885 Eastern Rumelia proclaimed its union with Bulgaria, and brought the Eastern question once more to the front. At once a complete volte face was noticeable in British and Russian policies, as a result of the seven years' experience of Bulgaria's existence. Russia opposed the union, and encouraged the Sultan to menace Bulgaria. Lord Salisbury, on the other hand, took the side of Bulgaria, and his good offices were largely instrumental in securing Eastern Rumelia for the principality. Austria also opposed the union, and encouraged King Milan of Servia to declare war upon Bulgaria. Servia was rapidly defeated in a

brilliant campaign by the Bulgarians, who were only stopped from marching to Belgrade by the intervention of Austria.

It was finally determined that **the province of Eastern Rumelia, like the principality of Bulgaria, should be tributary to the Sultan,** but under the government of the Prince of Bulgaria. The annual tribute for Northern Bulgaria has not, in fact, been paid to the Porte; but the annual tribute for Eastern Rumelia has been paid with regularity up to the declaration of Bulgarian independence in October, 1908.

Macedonia remained under Turkish rule, which showed no signs of improving, and the intolerable state of the country continued. The difficulty of the situation has always been greatly increased by the mixture of races, all of which are animated by the fiercest nationalism. The population of Macedonia is composed of Bulgars, Serbs, Greeks, Vlachs—who are akin to the Roumanians—and Turks. In the districts near to Albania there are also many Albanians.

MACEDONIAN TROUBLES.

In the nineties **a revolutionary organisation called the Macedonian Internal Organisation,** representing in the main the Bulgar population, was formed, and, after various small attempts at rebellion, there came in 1903 a serious attempt to throw off the Turkish yoke. The insurrection was suppressed in the usual way—Turkish irregulars were turned loose into the villages to rape and loot, and the whole country was desolated with fire and sword. The Macedonian Bulgars had hoped that Bulgaria would fight for them, but, feeling that its army was not in a position to meet the Turks, the principality refrained.

Strong public indignation was manifested in Great Britain; and Lord Lansdowne, on behalf of the British Government, urged the Powers to frame a drastic scheme of reform and insist upon its acceptance by the Porte; **but Austria and Russia, in pursuance of an agreement between themselves, claimed a privileged position,** and were allowed to draft a reform scheme, which has since been known as the **Mürzsteg Reform Scheme,** owing to the fact that the Tsar and the Emperor Francis Joseph met at Mürzsteg in September, 1903, for its elaboration. The scheme was utterly inadequate, and the efforts of the British Government were devoted to securing a real scheme; but the resistance of Austria and Russia, supported by Germany, to any advance was persistent, and, since France was Russia's ally, while Italy was a member of the Triple Alliance, Great Britain was practically isolated in her efforts for reform.

ANGLO-RUSSIAN SCHEME.

The anarchy in Macedonia grew worse. The country suffered not only from Turkish oppression, but from the murderous propaganda carried on by Greeks and Bulgarians against one another in order to increase their own adherents in the Macedonian villages; so that, when the ultimate partition of Macedonia came, their national claim might be as strong as possible. The Turkish Government encouraged this feud, and acted as an agent provocateur, while all the customary methods of oppression continued unchecked. The position finally became desperate, and it was clear that the so-called European reforms, although beneficial in some directions, **had,** instead of increasing security for life and property, decreased it. The Concert of Europe had fallen into complete contempt, and Bulgaria was steadily preparing for war in order to free Macedonia herself.

At the beginning of 1908, therefore, **Sir Edward Grey determined to make a final attempt to galvanise the Concert into some real action,** and announced publicly that if some action was not taken the Concert might be held to have perished, and that the British Government would dissociate itself from it. He succeeded in detaching Russia from Austria, owing to Russia's irritation at Baron von Aehrenthal's secret negotiations with the Sultan for a concession to connect the Bosnian Railway with Salonica by **a line through the sanjak of Novi-Bazaar to Mitrovitsa.** A meeting between King Edward and the Tsar took place at Reval in June, and a much more drastic scheme of reform was agreed upon between the British and Russian Governments. **This scheme was then submitted to the other Powers, and was actually under discussion when the totally unexpected Turkish Revolution in July completely changed the face of the situation.**

CONSTITUTION GRANTED.

The Young Turkish Party, which had hitherto maintained a secret existence, now came into the open. Stimulated by the imminent danger of the break-up of their country and by the presence of the European reform agents in Turkey, the Young Turks had for three years been perfecting their organisation, and finally succeeded in securing the absolute loyalty of the Third Army Corps stationed in Macedonia.

In July a rising took place at Resna; the principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity were duly proclaimed, and a demand was made that the constitution of Midhat Pasha should be revived. **Faced with the Army's demand, and alarmed by the fact that the Albanians of North Albania had also united in a demand for a constitution, the Sultan accorded it on July 24th.** Macedonia immediately entered on a period of universal rejoicing and of the completest liberty, and this example was followed throughout the other provinces of the Empire.

The Eastern Question entered on an entirely new phase, and a kind of millennium seemed to have arrived, though many doubts were expressed as to its durability. But the prospect of seeing a strong and reformed Turkey, while it was welcomed in Bulgaria because of the benefits it would bring to the Macedonian Bulgars, at the same time created a strong desire that the question of Bulgaria's status should be definitely settled.

AUSTRIA'S PERFIDY.

A similar feeling was excited in Austria, as the Bosnians demanded a constitution. Both Bulgaria and Austria felt that, whereas with a weak Turkey the nominal suzerainty of the Sultan was a small matter, with a strong Turkey it would be different, and they therefore desired to settle the question in the early days of the new régime.

In September, Prince Ferdinand paid a visit to the Emperor Francis Joseph at Budapest, with the result that **on Monday, October 5th, Bulgaria proclaimed itself an independent kingdom,** Prince Ferdinand was crowned Tsar of a united Bulgaria, and within two days

Austria announced the annexation of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Both of these acts were clear violations of the Treaty of Berlin. In the case of Bulgaria she was not a signatory of the treaty, and it had been merely imposed upon her; but Austria was a signatory to the treaty, and had, moreover, bound herself, by a secret agreement with Turkey, not to alter the juridical status of the occupied provinces.

Much sympathy with Bulgaria had always been felt in this country, but on this occasion the action of Austria and Bulgaria was felt to be exceedingly untimely, as it was calculated to destroy the prestige of the Turkish reformers in their own country.

War, in fact, seemed imminent, as it was feared that the reactionary party in Turkey would clamour for war with Bulgaria, and that the reform party could only maintain their place by declaring war. Turkey, however, displayed the greatest moderation, and she was vigorously defended by the British Government. The British view was that Austria's action was peculiarly cynical, inasmuch as she had always opposed the extension of the reform scheme in Macedonia on the ground that the sovereignty of the Sultan must not be impaired; whereas now, in her own interests, she had thrown the doctrine of sovereignty to the winds, torn up a European treaty, and seriously imperilled the new era of freedom in Turkey.

Servia and Montenegro were also roused to a dangerous state of excitement by the Austrian action. Both these states, as well as the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, are inhabited by homogeneous Serb populations; and the Austrian occupation of the provinces, inasmuch as it cut the two Serb states off from one another, and prevented Servia from any egress to the sea, had always been bitterly resented, but the hope had been cherished that it might only prove temporary. The Eastern Crisis was, in fact, provoked again in its most acute form, and, **as Sir Edward Grey declared, a European Conference, or at least an exchange of notes, was necessary to consider the sudden and unauthorised changes which had been made in the public law of Europe.**

As regards British policy, it is noteworthy that, on humanitarian grounds, for the last twenty-eight years, it had been opposed to the old Turkish Government, which had steadily refused to reform. It had, in fact, become the recognised enemy of the Porte in Europe, whereas other Powers had sought to gain favour, and commercial and political advantages, by obstructing the reform work of the Concert of which they were themselves members.

The practical wisdom of Great Britain's disinterested policy was at once made manifest when the Turkish Revolution came, as the Young Turks displayed the most gratifying enthusiasm for this country, and a warm friendship was at once established between the new régime at Constantinople and the British Government.

WHO THE YOUNG TURKS ARE.

The Turkish Revolution of July, 1908, had **been maturing for three years.** The Committee of Union and Progress, the revolutionary organisation, had its headquarters at Salonika, **and finally secured the adhesion of the 3rd Army Corps, stationed in Macedonia.** The organisation is extremely democratic, and theoretically there are no officials, all members being equal. **Niaza Bey,** a major of infantry at Resna, was chosen to make the actual rising; and **Major Enver Bey** also played a distinguished part. Another hero of the revolution was **Dr. Nazim Bey,** who, when supposed to be in exile, was secretly occupied in propaganda work amongst the soldiers of the Asiatic garrisons. A committee of exiles existed at Paris, where Prince Sabah Eddin and Achmet Riza were the leaders.

W. A. MOORE.

THE BALKAN STATES.

Turkey-in-Europe (Abdul Hamid II.); capital, Constantinople; area, 65,350 sq. miles; estimated population, 6,000,000.

Bulgaria (King Ferdinand); capital, Sofia; area, 38,080 sq. miles; population, 4,035,623.

Greece (King George I.); capital, Athens; area, 25,014 sq. miles; population, 2,500,000.

Montenegro (Prince Nicholas I.); capital, Cettinje; area, 3,630 sq. miles; population, 230,000.

Roumania (King Charles I.); capital, Bucharest; area, 50,700 sq. miles; population, 6,700,000.

Servia (King Peter); capital, Belgrade; area, 18,650 sq. miles; population, 2,700,000.

Bosnia and Herzegovina are now incorporated as a Dominium Imperatoris et Régis of the Austro-Hungarian Empire (Francis Joseph II.); the principal town of Bosnia is Sarajevo, and of Herzegovina, Mostar; area of the two provinces, 19,702 sq. miles; population, 1,700,000.

TURKEY'S PARLIAMENT.

No complete census of the population of the Ottoman Empire exists, but an Arabic journal estimates that on the basis of one Deputy for every 50,000 of the male Ottomans over sixteen years of age, there will be 250 members of the Chamber of Deputies—thus bringing the total number of electors up to 12,500,000, made up as follows:

Arabs (Bedouins), 5,000,000; Turks, 2,850,000; Bulgarians and Greeks, 1,050,000; Arnauts, 650,000; Bosnians and Serbs, 700,000; Kurds, 650,000; Greek Orthodox, 500,000; Armenians, 450,000; Jews, 350,000; Protestants, 100,000; Circassians, 100,000; Jenkans, 100,000.

The Senate will be composed of eighty-three members, or about one-third of the number of Deputies. The above figures are taken from the most reliable and only available Government records.

Here are four of the main provisions of the new Turkish Constitution:

1. All Ottoman subjects, without distinction of race or origin, shall enjoy their personal liberty, and be equal as regards rights and responsibilities.

2. Nobody without legal grounds shall be questioned, arrested, imprisoned, or punished in any other manner.

3. Extraordinary Courts shall be prohibited, and it shall be forbidden to summon any person outside the department of the competent tribunal.

4. The domicile of all persons is inviolable. It shall not be permissible to enter a house, or to keep any place of abode under observation, otherwise than in conformity with the provisions of the law.

AUSTRIA DEFIES A TREATY.

SERIOUS ISSUE OF THE TURKISH REVOLUTION.

The serious side-issues of the Turkish Revolution—**the tearing up by Austria of the Berlin Treaty, and the declaration of independence by Bulgaria,** of which the facts have been given in the article on "The Drama of the Balkans" (pages 191–2)—have completely disturbed the balance of Europe.

The problem then became—what steps should be taken to regularise these irregular proceedings, and to protect the rights of those who had been wronged? Should there, or should there not, be another Conference? England and Russia were agreed that a Conference was necessary. Austria was against it, and Germany was supposed to side with her.

The English and Russian views were explicity stated in a document put out by the English Foreign Office after an exchange of views between M. Isvolsky—on the part of Russia—and Sir Edward Grey.

The official report was as follows:

The exchange of views which has taken place between M. Isvolsky and Sir Edward Grey **has resulted in a complete agreement as to what should be done to deal with the situation which has arisen in the Near East** in consequence of recent events which have occurred there.

For this purpose it is agreed that **a Conference will be necessary.** But, in order to be successful in **reaffirming** respect for the law of nations and making reparation to those who have been injured by the breach of international treaties, such a Conference should be limited in scope and confine itself to dealing with questions arising from the recent violation of the Treaty of Berlin.

As regards the **objects of the Conference,** the first must be provision for compensating Turkey, and on this point there seems to be general agreement among the Powers; provision will also have to be made for effectively strengthening the present régime in Turkey, which affords the best safeguard for the maintenance of peace; it is also to be hoped that means will be found to meet the reasonable wishes of the smaller Balkan States, with the proviso that this should not be done at the expense of Turkey; and there is good reason to believe that the Cretan question will be satisfactorily dealt with, though provisionally excluded from the scope of the Conference, as being in the first instance a question to be discussed with Turkey by the four Protecting Powers.

It is hoped that these views will, by their moderation, reasonableness, and disinterestedness, recommend themselves to the acceptance of the signatory Powers of the Treaty of Berlin, with whom it is essential that there should be an informal exchange of ideas on the subject.

There is no intention of submitting the question of the Straits to the Conference. It is a question in which Russia and Turkey are primarily concerned, and there is no desire on the part of the former to settle it in any sense hostile to Turkey or to seek for it as compensation, for Russia enters the Conference as one of the disinterested Powers.

The subjects arising under the Anglo-Russian Convention have also come up for discussion, and the discussion has proved the identity of views between the two Ministers which promises to secure a continuance of the cordial and harmonious co-operation of the two Governments in the settlement of the **Central Asian question.**

The attitude of the British Government to the remarkable events which have taken place in Turkey and their sequel were well stated by Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey.

Mr. Asquith, speaking of these events on November 9th, 1908, characterised the establishment of freedom and constitutional Government in Turkey as **one of the most amazing revolutions in the annals of history.** They might claim the privilege (he said), as the oldest of the free countries of the world, to greet with a special welcome the new birth of free institutions in Turkey. As to what followed in Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Herzegovina, the attitude of the British Government in regard to these matters had from the first been unambiguous and clear. They had taken their stand upon the opinion, recorded by the Powers at the London Conference of 1871, that international treaties could not be altered by the act of one of the parties without the assent of the others. They held that this stipulation covered the alterations of the Treaty of Berlin which were involved in what had recently been done, and that, to give to those changes international validity, they must obtain the assent of the Powers, including Turkey.

Subject to the maintenance of this all-important principle, the Government wished to do all they could to promote a general agreement. There had never been the shadow of a foundation for the suspicion that they had opposed, deprecated, or discouraged direct negotiations between Turkey and Austria and Bulgaria. For their part, the Government would do what they could to urge upon all concerned moderation and restraint—never more needed than at the present moment.

Sir Edward Grey, on July 27th, 1908, said:

"**Now there has come an unexpected protest from the Turkish Army itself and the Mussulman population.** The extraordinary part of the matter is this, that these sudden events of the last two days, which would in some circumstances have led to increased disorder, have suddenly produced, for a time at all events, order, security, and even rejoicing.

"That was a remarkable situation, and it has come at the very moment when we had submitted to other Powers proposals for forming a mobile force, partly of Turkish troops and partly of the gendarmerie, in order that that force might be allocated for the purpose of putting down the bands with impartiality and vigour. At this moment the bands have melted away.

"**We welcome the news that the Sultan has proclaimed a constitution,** we welcome the news of the strength of the feeling which has brought about the proclamation of the constitution."

THE KAISER AND HIS PARLIAMENT.

AN INTERVIEW AND A LESSON IN CONSTITUTIONALISM.

During the twenty years of his reign the German Emperor has furnished Europe with many surprises, but no action to which his impulsive nature has hitherto impelled him can compare in sensational effect with the **publication of an interview with an English diplomatist** in the "Daily Telegraph" of October 28th, 1908, purporting to reveal the inner secrets of the Kaiser's policy towards Great Britain in "a frank, colloquial, unofficial statement of public policy."

The conversation, as reported, began with an energetic **protest by the Emperor against the misrepresentations to which he had been subjected** in England. The English, he declared, were mad—mad as hatters. What had come over them that they were so completely given over to suspicious quite unworthy of a great nation?

"What more can I do than I have done? I declared with all the emphasis at my command, in my speech at Guildhall, that my **heart is set upon peace, and that it is one of my dearest wishes to live on the best of terms with England.** Have I ever been false to my word? Falsehood and prevarication are alien to my nature. My actions ought to speak for themselves, but you listen not to them, but to those who misinterpret and distort them. That is a personal insult which I feel and resent. I have said time after time that I am a friend of England, and your Press—or, at least, a considerable section of it—bids the people of England refuse my proffered hand and insinuates that the other holds a dagger.

"My task is not of the easiest. **The prevailing sentiment among large sections of the middle and lower classes of my own people is not friendly to England.** I am, therefore, so to speak, in a minority in my own land, but it is a minority of the best elements, just as it is in England with respect to Germany. That is another reason why I resent your refusal to accept my pledged word that I am the friend of England. I strive without ceasing to improve relations, and you retort that I am your arch-enemy."

After insisting that there was nothing in Germany's action in Morocco running counter to his declared love of peace, the Emperor turned to the **secret history of the Boer War.** He affirmed that just after the Black Week in December, 1899, he received a sorrowful letter from his grandmother, Queen Victoria, and at once returned a sympathetic reply.

"Nay, I did more. I bade one of my officers procure for me as exact an account as he could obtain of the number of combatants in South Africa on both sides, and of the actual position of the opposing forces. With the figures before me, **I worked out what I considered to be the best plan of campaign** under the circumstances, and submitted it to my General Staff for their criticism."

This, said the Emperor, was sent on to England, and is now reposing among the national archives, awaiting the serenely impartial judgment of history; and, as a matter of curious coincidence, his Majesty added that the plan which he formulated ran very much on the same lines as that actually adopted by Lord Roberts. Again:

"When the struggle was at its height," continued the Emperor, "the German Government was invited by the Governments of France and Russia to join with them in calling upon England to put an end to the war. The moment had come, they said, not only to save the Boer Republics, but also to humiliate England to the dust. What was my reply? I said that so far from Germany joining in any concerted European action to put pressure upon England and bring about her downfall, **Germany would always keep aloof from politics that could bring her into complications with a Sea Power like England.** I informed the Sovereign of England of the answer I had returned to the Powers which then sought to compass her fall."

As for the **German Navy,** it was no menace to England. Germany was a young and growing Power, and must have a powerful fleet to protect its world-wide and ever-expanding commerce.

"Germany looks ahead. Her horizons stretch far away. She must be prepared for any eventualities in the Far East. **Who can foresee what may take place in the Pacific in the days to come,** days not so distant as some believe, but days, at any rate, for which all European Powers with Far Eastern interests ought steadily to prepare? Look at the accomplished rise of Japan: think of the possible national awakening of China; and then judge of the vast problems of the Pacific. Only those Powers which have great navies will be listened to with respect, when the future of the Pacific comes to be solved; and if for that reason only Germany must have a powerful fleet. It may even be that England herself will be glad that Germany has a fleet when they speak together on the same side in the great debates of the future."

Such was the interview. It provoked an absolutely unexampled storm throughout the German Empire. The whole country was outraged. The Press, with a unanimity and an emphasis never before approached, turned on the Emperor and denounced him for humiliating Germany in the eyes of the world. The authenticity of the interview was admitted, and the official explanation made matters ten times worse.

It was authoritatively stated that the **manuscript,** received from a private Englishman and embodying not one, but several conversations, was handed by the Emperor to Prince Buelow, with the remark that if the Foreign Office agreed, he had no objection to its publication. Without reading it, the Chancellor passed it on to the Foreign Office, where successive officials shied at the illegible English writing on "flimsy," with the result that it got round to the Chancellor again, and, still unread, was duly signed as containing nothing that need be kept back.

When he realised, on the reproduction of the interview in the German papers, what had happened, **Prince Buelow** took upon himself the entire responsibility, and tendered his resignation. The Emperor declined to accept it.

Meanwhile the storm raged in the German Press and in all the capitals from Paris to Tokio. The Emperor's references to the Far East were keenly resented by China and Japan; his statements with regard to the movement towards European intervention during the Boer War were vehemently denied in Paris and Petersburg. England, said the "Temps," had been forced "to purchase from day to day the malevolent tolerance of Germany," and had always felt the edge of Germany's policy directed against her. The "Novoe Vremya" accused the Kaiser of "unscrupulous duplicity" towards the Boers.

Prince Buelow met the Reichstag on November 10th, when a debate of extraordinary interest took place. Interpellations were submitted on behalf of the various parties, and one after another the leaders of the National Liberals, Radicals, Socialists, Conservatives, and Catholics spoke in **denunciation of the "personal régime," the Emperor's indiscretion, and the ineptitude of the Foreign Office officials,** while repudiating in explicit terms the Emperor's statement with reference to anti-English feeling in Germany.

The Chancellor in reply offered one or two corrections of detail. The "Daily Telegraph" article contained expressions that were too strong; the Emperor's so-called plan of campaign was nothing more than a set of academic observations, aphorisms on the art of war; with regard to intervention in South Africa, "the colours had been laid on too thickly." Prince Buelow then passed to a defence of the Emperor's attitude towards England, and insisted that Germany desired "peaceable and friendly relations with England on the basis of mutual respect," and had no idea of embarking upon maritime adventure in the Far East.

The speech, however, was less notable for its line of defence than for its **intimation of the limits of the personal régime.** On this point Prince Buelow said:

"His Majesty would in future impose upon himself, even in his private conversations, that reserve which is indispensable to a consistent policy and to the authority of the Crown If that were not so, neither I nor my successor could accept responsibility for it."

The continued attacks on the second day of the debate made it clear that the majority of the Reichstag demanded a more satisfactory guarantee against the perils of the Kaiser's impulsive nature. The whole incident had led to a serious demand for a more constitutional régime in Germany.

ENGLAND AND GERMANY.

Mr. Asquith, as Prime Minister, dealing with the above incident in his speech at the Lord Mayor's Banquet on November 9th, referred to the declaration of the German Emperor in the Guildhall last year that his governing purpose was the preservation of the peace of Europe. In that aim the British Government joined. Nothing would induce this country to fall short in any of the special engagements it had undertaken, nor should we be reluctant to grasp any hand extended in good will and good faith. As to the Navy, he hoped the country would be content with the assurance that nothing would be left undone to keep it fully abreast of our national and Imperial necessities.

Sir Edward Grey made an important statement with regard to **the attitude of Great Britain to Germany** in the House of Commons on July 27th, 1908. He said:

"It is most undesirable that any section of opinion in this country should represent it as an object of British policy **to isolate Germany.** It is equally undesirable that any section of public opinion in Germany should believe in that being the case. When you come to deal with a question of the relations between two great Powers of this kind, I would ask the people who really wish to form an opinion of the feeling of the two countries towards each other not to take too short views. The feeling of any two great countries towards each other may vary in degree from year to year; but I at least say this—that anybody who reviews the history of the last twenty years impartially must be bound to admit that **the attitude of this country has not been that of a Power which was reluctant to be on good terms with Germany.** And if, on reviewing the last twenty years, you carry your mind back to the events which occurred in the first decade of the twenty years, you will find that **there was at one time a moment when there was constant friction between this country and France,** and at another time a moment when there was constant friction between this country and Russia.

"Now, what have we done in recent years? **We have come to agreements with those two Powers** which have removed the friction which existed, and removed all danger of a breach of the peace between either us and France or between us and Russia. That is a distinct change. But does any power in Europe say to us that a favourable balance of power from their point of view depended on our being on bad terms with France or Russia, or any other Power? **We have settled by agreements, which are known to the world,** certain causes of dispute, removed possibilities of friction between us and these two Powers. It is not so long ago—I think only last year—that Prince Bülow said that the policy of Germany did not depend on promoting enmity between other Powers. I would complete that by saying that, as far as we are concerned, **it is no part of our policy to give our friendships any hostile point towards any other Power. But we must be free to make those friendships.** Having made them, I am willing to give the utmost guarantees that we shall use them for the mutual advantage of ourselves and the other countries with which we are concerned; but we shall not take advantage of those friendships to make enmity between our friends and any other Power; nor is it our object to isolate any Power whatever.

"And, after all, when the isolation of Germany is spoken of, I think it is only fair to bear in mind that **Germany has two allies.** We have never grudged that alliance; we have never considered that alliance as directed against us; and if we have made agreements with France and Russia (**which, by the way, are public to the world, while those of the Triple Alliance are not**), there is as little reason to suppose that the object and motive of these agreements **was isolation or unfriendly action towards any** other Power."

OUR AGREEMENT WITH RUSSIA.

An agreement between England and Russia, signed in St. Pètersburg on September 1st, 1907, settles by mutual consent the different questions affecting the interests of the two Powers in Asia, and should remove an antagonism which, whether real or imaginary, has for the last half century and more continually threatened the peace of the world (says the "Times").

The convention embodies three separate agreements, relating respectively to Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet (continues the "Times"). The Persian agreement starts with a declaration that the two Powers have mutually engaged to respect the integrity and independence of Persia.

Great Britain engages neither to seek nor to support on behalf of British subjects or of the subjects of third Powers any commercial or political concessions, such as railways, banks, telegraphs, roads, transport, or insurance, **north of a line** drawn from Kasr-i-Shirin on the Turco-Persian frontier, west of Kermanshah, by way of, and including, Ispahan, Yezd, and Khakh, to the point where the Persian, Russian, and Afghan frontiers meet; and Russia enters into a corresponding engagement, framed in identic terms, within a zone extending over South-Eastern Persia from the Perso-Afghan frontier, by way of, and including, Gazik, Birjand, and Kerman, to Bandar Abbas on the Persian Gulf. No opposition will be made by Great Britain to the granting of concessions to Russian subjects within the former zone, or by Russia to the granting of concessions to British subjects within the latter zone, except by mutual agreement.

Two further articles **safeguard the customs and other revenues** pledged by Persia as security for loans already made by the Russian and British banks, and provide for friendly consultation in the event of financial difficulties.

Under the first article relating to Afghanistan, Great Britain declares that she has no intention of changing the political status of Afghanistan, and undertakes to exercise her influence in Afghanistan solely in a pacific sense, and not to take or encourage Afghanistan to take measures which should threaten Russia. On the basis of the Treaty of Kabul of March 21st, 1905, Great Britain engages also not to annex or occupy any part of Afghanistan so long as the Ameer fulfils the engagements he contracted under that treaty towards Great Britain. Russia, on the other hand, formally declares Afghanistan to be outside the sphere of Russian influence, undertakes to conduct all her political relations with Afghanistan through the British Government, and pledges herself not to send any agents into Afghanistan.

Finally, **the agreement concerning Tibet,** which recognises the suzerainty of China over that country, closes it against both Russia and Great Britain politically, commercially, and financially, subject to certain limited rights accruing to Great Britain under the Treaty of Lhassa of 1904 and the Anglo-Chinese Convention, which confirmed that Treaty in 1906.

ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

Sir E. Grey says of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance that those who made it six years since believed at the time that the objects it had in view were objects with which the whole world might sympathise, because they were objects which were directed against no other Power, but were compatible with the welfare of all. That view has been endorsed, because in the course of the last three years Japan has entered into agreements with other Powers, agreements having more or less the same objects as the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. Because other nations have done the same, we are entitled to say that the objects of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance are more secure than ever; and because other nations have shown a disposition to endorse them, the objects are not only more secure, but the prospect of peace also is more secure.

THE PERSIAN REVOLUTION.

The year 1908 was marked in Persia by the Shah's forcible **suppression of the new constitution** granted by the last monarch on his death-bed, January 1st, 1907. The constitution involved the creation of a **National Council (Mejliss)** to be elected every two years, a senate (half elected and half nominated) and a cabinet of eight Ministers. By a later law (May, 1907) town and rural councils, with a wide franchise, came into existence.

The few months of the National Council's existence were troublous in the extreme, and the first Prime Minister was killed by a bomb. It was soon evident that the new Shah (Muhammed Ali), notwithstanding his formal ratification of the constitution, was not disposed to accept the new régime. In December, 1907, a conflict arose over the question of the Civil List, the Shah yielding at the last moment to the Parliament's ultimatum. This victory appears to have led the Mejliss to overrate its strength, and the following May it attempted to make an end of the Court clique and again sent an ultimatum to the Shah, who replied with a coup d'état.

The city of Teheran was dominated by the Persian Cossacks, who destroyed the Parliament House and many other buildings. Several leaders of the popular party were shot down, or arrested, and afterwards tortured and executed. But the Nationalists, though defeated in the capital, were strong in some of the provinces, particularly in Azerbaijan, the chief town of which, Tabriz, was held by the Nationalist troops against the Shah for the rest of the year.

The attitude of Britain towards the revolution was one of strict non-intervention. Sir Edward Grey, however, stated that if a general movement on behalf of freedom and good government should take practical shape in Persia, it would lack no sympathy from England. A joint Note was presented by the Russian and British representatives at Teheran, urging the Shah to summon a new Mejliss in November. These representations were repeated in October, but so far without effect.

BELGIUM ANNEXES THE CONGO.

The Congo Free State ceased to exist in 1908, the territories formerly administered by King Leopold being annexed by Belgium. By the vote of the Chamber in August, a tract larger in extent than the whole of Europe and with a population of more than twenty millions came under the control of the Belgian Government.

By the annexation treaty Belgium took over from King Leopold all real and personal estate of the independent Congo State with all its liabilities and financial engagements. According to the explanatory statement accompanying the treaty, the liabilities were amply covered by the assets, and the debt left by the Free State ought not to be a burden on the Belgian taxpayer.

An important provision of the treaty is that **the Crown domain** upon which the King wished to keep his hold and from which he had extracted a great part of his revenue is now subject, like all other territories, to the sovereignty of the State and its laws without exception. Henceforward there will exist in the Congo no other authority than that of the Belgian Government. The reforms ordained by decree will apply in the Crown domain as elsewhere.

On several occasions during the year Sir Edward Grey stated the policy of Great Britain in relation to the Congo, insisting that **forced labour must come to an end.** He said, on July 27th: "If it is to come to an end it is essential without delay that the natives should be put into possession of large tracts of territory which will enable them to keep themselves. Otherwise they will have no means of earning a livelihood."

In regard to the freedom of trade, the British Government proposed to the Belgian Government that any difficulties of interpretation of treaty rights should be submitted to arbitration. The Congo Reform party, which has been engaged for some years past in arousing public opinion, especially in England and America, with regard to the atrocities in the Congo State, is by no means fully satisfied by the terms of the annexation, holding that no sufficient guarantees have been given for a radical change in the system of administration and the treatment of the people.

MOROCCO'S NEW SULTAN.

Morocco, like other countries in the Mohammedan world, underwent a dynastic revolution in 1908, thereby overturning various calculations of the European Powers. The newspaper correspondents had been singularly wide of the mark in their reading of the situation, most of them having been persuaded that the **Sultan Abdul Aziz** was in a position of increasing strength, while his brother **Mulai Hafid,** the pretender, was becoming of less and less account.

The truth was revealed in August, when the army of Abdul Aziz was routed near Marakesh, the southern capital, and Mulai Hafid immediately afterwards proclaimed Sultan. His victory was undoubtedly due to the treachery of a large part of the deposed Sultan's forces, while for the success with which his reign was inaugurated he was largely indebted to El Menebhi, formerly Minister of War to Abdul Aziz.

The hesitation and misgiving with which the accession of Mulai Hafid was followed among the Powers was suddenly ended by the action of Germany. The German Consul was despatched to Fez, and early in September the Kaiser's Government addressed the Powers signatory to the Algeciras Act, urging **the immediate recognition of the new Sultan.** Mulai Hafid himself, as soon as he felt his position secure, circulated a Note to the Powers, affirming his intention to abide by all the treaty obligations of his predecessor, particularly the Act of Algeciras, and inviting the Powers to assist him in introducing reforms.

Following upon this came **a Franco-Spanish joint Note,** proposing that Mulai Hafid's sovereignty should be recognised on condition that, besides confirming the deposed Sultan's treaty obligations, he should accept responsibility for his debts, confirm the authority of the Casa Blanca Indemnity Commission, give an authoritative disavowal of the Shereezian Holy War, and undertake immediate measures to ensure security in the ports and along the main routes of the interior. With these two notes the Moroccan difficulty came, for the time being, to an end.

Mulai Hafid was carried to the throne on a wave of anti-European popular feeling, but there seems no reason to fear that he will pursue a reactionary policy with regard to European enterprise or internal reforms, or to doubt that in both energy and intelligence he has the advantage of his predecessor.

An ugly incident ensued. Some soldiers deserted from the **French Foreign Legion at Casa Blanca,** and this led to acts of violence, in which the German Consul was involved. It is said by the French that he assisted the escape of these German deserters. **Germany insisted that France should express regret for** the action of the French authorities. This, however, France refused to do. She proposed that "they both regret the incident of September 25th, and the exchange of acts of violence which it entailed." After much German bluster, **the whole of the facts were referred to the Hague for arbitration.**

UNIVERSAL PENNY POST.

Mr. Henniker Heaton declares that the extra cost of universal penny post to this country would only be £105,000. The Post Office says it would be £325,000, exclusive of the United States. He says:

"On 50,000,000 letters we would lose 1½d. each. The loss by establishing penny postage to France is officially estimated at £75,000, without allowing for any increase of correspondence. My estimate of the loss is only £25,000 for the first year, because I calculate that the missives sent would be doubled."

THE GOVERNMENT OF EGYPT.

VIEWS OF SIR EDWARD GREY & THE NATIONAL LEADERS.

There is a vigorous party in Egypt which clamours for Parliamentary institutions, and some for the evacuation of the country by the English.

Sir Edward Grey, speaking in the Commons on January 31st, 1908, said:

"One of the first things that Sir Eldon Gorst will have to form a considered opinion upon is the working of the existing representative institutions. They must be the starting point, and I should like to have that opinion first before we are committed to further steps. I admit that **we occupy Egypt in trust for the future of the country**, and a part of the trust is to develop the aptitude, abilities, and character of the people so as to fit them, not only to make good use of their material prosperity, but to take, in the course of years, their share in the government of their own country, to train them in respect of the institutions of the country, in every possible way to develop the natural faculties that they have. But the first point to which we have to address ourselves is **to start with the working of existing representative institutions**; and, in my opinion, we must begin from below. We must address ourselves to the powers and composition of the provincial councils, to the powers of the municipalities and the provincial towns.

"In the case of Egypt the progress must be slow. We shall hold the trust which we have of developing not only the material prosperity, but the moral welfare of Egypt; but **progress in representative institutions must be slow.** But while progress must be slow, we shall use all the British influence to ensure that the Government of Egypt, though administered by a bureaucracy, is administered in a just, kindly, and sympathetic spirit."

Sir Edward Grey again, on February 7th, 1908, said: "To apply an a priori doctrine without special regard to the peculiar conditions of a country is certain to lead to one of the gravest mistakes that can occur in the art of government, and when I say 'without special regard to the peculiar conditions of a country,' I mean not only the geographical features, but the race which inhabits the country and its present state.

"**Representative institutions in European countries have produced, no doubt, admirable results,** but even so, they have taken time to do it, and they have produced those results by slow growth. Truth, justice, honesty, moral courage, self-respect, all that goes to make up what we call character—I think we are right in attributing what we value most in national life to-day to the growth of self-government in our country. But **it does not follow that if you at once equip an Oriental country with representative institutions like our own the same results will follow when you apply them to another country, another race, in another stage of development altogether.**

"And in regard to the people of Egypt, the stage of development from which they have just emerged is very different to that of our country. The past government of Egypt, for which you have only to go back twenty-five years, was such as was necessarily calculated to crush out every quality in the race which is most essential to the exercise of self-government, and if you try to apply too rapidly to a race which has been crushed, as the Egyptian race was before the British occupation, if you apply too rapidly your principles of self-government, the result may very well be that you will produce not the effects we attribute to self-government in this country, but corruption, confusion, disorder, and oppression."

The Nationalists' Ideal.—Mohamed Farid Bey succeeded Moustafa Kamel Pasha as the leader of the Egyptian National Party. Writing in the "Manchester Guardian" of the ideals of the party, he says (May, 1908):

"The National Party is a party of calm and order. It pursues the accomplishment of its programme by legal and pacific means. The nation is conscious of a strength which is above all other strength. It proved its power and vitality on the occasion of the funeral of Moustafa Kamel Pasha and the memorial ceremony which took place on March 20th. The National Party has disciples in the most remote corners of Egypt, and will before long comprise the entire nation. England would perform an act of wisdom **by counselling the Khedive to give us back our Constitution,** and by restoring to Egyptians the posts given without any right to the products of Oxford and of Cambridge. The Egyptian nation is determined to conquer its right to public life, to liberty and science, and will spare no effort in order to succeed.

"**We place the evacuation in the forefront of our demands.** As long as Egypt is occupied by England, we hold, the Egyptian can never be master in his own house.

"And why should we be refused that which has been voluntarily accepted in Servia, Greece, and Bulgaria? I think that Egypt is at least equal to these little Balkan States, which the European Powers, and particularly England, protect in the name of Christianity and Western civilisation."

Lord Milner, in the "Empire Review," says that "we are, if I am not greatly mistaken, destined to hear a good deal of the Young Egyptian Party in the immediate future. The undoubted benefits which Egypt has derived from British administration have made no impression on it. And they never will. This is the first thing we have to recognise. There is no bridging the gulf between East and West.

"**Who, indeed, are 'the Egyptians'?**" asks Lord Milner. That is the point of the whole controversy. In the programme of Egyptian Nationalism the permanent European residents in Egypt are simply ignored. And, from the point of view of mere numbers, it may be possible to ignore them. They are only some hundred and odd thousands among ten millions. But they must be weighed and not counted. The conclusion is irresistible. It is possible further to limit the privileges enjoyed by European residents in Egypt. But they will never part with those privileges, nor will the nations of Europe ever agree to their being deprived of them, unless the resident Europeans obtain a substantial share in the government of Egypt as an autonomous country.

OBLIGATORY ARBITRATION.

TREATIES ACTUALLY SIGNED.

This Article indicates the Remarkable Growth of Obligatory Arbitration between Nations.

In 1899, **the First Conference at the Hague** endeavoured to unite the majority of States by the tie of obligatory arbitration—that is to say, by an engagement to submit certain kinds of possible disputes between them to the judgment of an arbitral tribunal.

The Conference was unable to create a **general scheme** of this description, but it inserted in the Hague Convention Article 19, **recommending the various States to contract between one another "special" treaties of obligatory arbitration.**

The recommendation contained in Article **19** remained practically a dead letter until **the rapprochement between France and Great Britain**, in which the first step was the Arbitration Agreement of October 14th, 1903.

After this date, Article **19** of the Hague Convention was brought into operation in a number of cases, and the majority of the Great Powers concluded arbitration treaties on the lines, as a rule, of the Franco-English Convention. **Sixty special treaties were signed in less than five years,** and spread over the world a network of arbitration, which is shown on the diagram on the next page.

Every State has not shown the same activity in taking advantage of Article 19, but below is a list which classes the Powers according to the number of arbitration treaties concluded by each since 1903. England leads with twelve treaties; then come Portugal, Switzerland, Spain, France, and so on. The number of treaties increases each year:

TREATIES SIGNED.

Great Britain (12).—France, Italy, Spain, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Portugal, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, Holland, Denmark, United States.

Portugal (10).—Spain, Holland, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Italy, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, Denmark, United States.

Switzerland (10).—Belgium, Great Britain, Italy, Austria-Hungary, France, Sweden, Norway, Portugal, Spain, United States.

Spain (9).—France, Great Britain, Portugal, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, Honduras, Denmark, Switzerland.

France (9).—Great Britain, Italy, Spain, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Denmark, United States.

Italy (9).—France, Great Britain, Switzerland, Peru, Portugal, Denmark, Mexico, Argentine, United States.

Norway (9).—France, Great Britain, Russia, Belgium, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, United States.

Belgium (8).—Russia, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, Spain, Greece, Denmark, Roumania.

Denmark (8).—Holland, Russia, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Spain, Italy, Portugal.

Sweden (8).—France, Great Britain, Russia, Belgium, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, Norway.

United States (7).—France, Switzerland, Mexico, Italy, Great Britain, Norway, Portugal.

Holland (4).—Denmark, France, Portugal, Great Britain.

Russia (4).—Belgium, Norway, Sweden, Denmark.

Austria-Hungary (3).—Switzerland, Great Britain, Portugal.

Argentine (2).—Brazil, Italy.

Mexico (2).—Italy, United States.

Germany (1).—Great Britain.

Brazil (1).—Argentine.

Greece (1).—Belgium.

Honduras (1).—Spain.

Peru (1).—Italy.

Roumania (1).—Belgium.

There were (up to April 8th, 1908):

2 treaties in 1903	49 treaties in 1906
27 treaties in 1904	53 treaties in 1907
48 treaties in 1905	60 treaties in 1908

The Second Conference at the Hague in 1907 sought to extend and unify these results by means of an engagement which would have included all the forty-four States there represented. The general formula which was proposed was adopted at a sitting on October 5th, 1907, by **the delegates of thirty-five countries, who declared themselves ready to establish amongst themselves under certain reserves a common obligation to have recourse to arbitration.**

Five Powers voted against the proposal.

Four abstained from voting.

The whole of the Arbitration proposal, which contained, in addition to the general formula, provisions according to which obligatory arbitration was in certain cases applicable without reserve, was voted by thirty-two States.

Although, owing to a want of unanimity, this vote could not be transformed into a Resolution of the Conference itself, it constitutes none the less an important fact, and a noteworthy advance on the results of the First Conference.

The thirty-five countries which voted for compulsory arbitration, the four which did not vote, and the five which voted against it, together with their populations, is shown on another diagram. The representatives of 1½ millions voted for arbitration, and of less than ½ million against or did not vote.

A NETWORK OF ARBITRATION, SHOWING THE COUNTRIES WHICH HAVE CONCLUDED ARBITRATION TREATIES WITH EACH OTHER, AS TABULATED IN THE ARTICLE ON PAGE 200.

NATIONS WHICH FAVOUR COMPULSORY ARBITRATION.

This diagram shows at a glance how the various countries voted at the Hague on Compulsory Arbitration, and their populations. Thirty-five were in favour (grey tint), with a total population of 1,285,272,000. Five were against (black tint), with a population of 167,436,000. Four did not vote (white tint), with a population of 55,562,000.

DIARY OF OBLIGATORY ARBITRATION TREATIES.

Here is a chronological list of the treaties of obligatory arbitraton signed between 1903 and 1908, and the dates of signature:

France–Great Britain, October 14th, 1903
France–Italy, 25th December, 1903
Great Britain–Italy, February 1st, 1904
Denmark–Holland, February 12th, 1904
Spain–France, February 26th, 1904
Spain–Great Britain, February 27th, 1904
France–Holland, April 6th, 1904
Spain–Portugal, May 31st, 1904
France–Norway, July 9th, 1904
France–Sweden, July 9th, 1904
Germany–Great Britain, July 12th, 1904
Great Britain–Norway, August 11th, 1904
Great Britain–Sweden, August 11th, 1904
Holland–Portugal, October 1st, 1904
Belgium–Russia, October 30th, 1904
Belgium–Switzerland, November 15th, 1904
Great Britain–Portugal, November 16th, 1904
Great Britain–Switzerland, Nov., 16th, 1904
Italy–Switzerland, November 16th, 1904
Norway–Russia, November 26th, 1904
Russia–Sweden, November 26th, 1904
Belgium–Norway, November 30th, 1904
Belgium–Sweden, November 30th, 1904
Aus.-Hungary–Switzerland, December 3rd, 1904
France–Switzerland, December 14th, 1904
Sweden–Switzerland, December 17th, 1904
Norway–Switzerland, December 17th, 1904
Aus.-Hungary–Gt. Britain, January 11th, 1905
Belgium–Spain, January 23, 1905
Spain–Norway, January 23rd, 1905
Spain–Sweden, January 23rd, 1905
Great Britain–Holland, February 15th, 1905
Denmark–Russia, February 16th, 1905
Italy–Peru, April 18th, 1905
Belgium–Greece, April 19th, 1905
Belgium–Denmark, April 26th, 1905
Spain–Honduras, May 5th, 1905
Portugal–Norway, May 6th, 1905
Portugal–Sweden, May 6th, 1905
Italy–Portugal, May 11th, 1905
Belgium–Roumania, May 27, 1905
Portugal–Switzerland, August 18th, 1905
Argentine–Brazil, September 7th, 1905
Denmark–France, September 15th, 1905
Denmark–Great Britain, October 25th, 1905
Norway–Sweden, October 26th, 1905
Denmark–Spain, December 1st, 1905
Denmark–Italy, December 16th, 1905
Austria-Hungary–Portugal, Feb., 13th, 1906
Denmark–Portugal, March 20th, 1907
Spain–Switzerland, May 14th, 1907
Italy–Mexico, October 16th, 1907
Argentina–Italy, October 16, 1907
United States–France, February 10th, 1908
United States–Switzerland, Feby. 29th, 1908
United States–Mexico, March 24th, 1908
United States–Italy, March 28th, 1908
United States–Great Britain, April 4th, 1908
United States–Norway, April 4th, 1908
United States–Portugal, April 6th, 1908

Our diagrams and information have been supplied by the "International Conciliation" of Paris. They have also been reproduced by the French Foreign Office, and were exhibited on a large scale at the Franco-British Exhibition.

THE HAGUE CONFERENCE.

The British Plenipotentiaries on June 29th, 1908, signed the following conventions annexed to the Final Act of the Hague Conference of 1907:

The convention for the pacific settlement of international disputes.

The convention respecting the limitation of the employment of force for the recovery of contract debts.

The convention relative to the opening of hostilities.

The convention respecting the laws and customs of war on land.

The convention relative to the status of enemy merchant vessels at the outbreak of hostilities.

The convention relative to the conversion of merchant vessels into ships of war.

The convention relative to certain restrictions on the exercise of the right of capture in maritime war.

The declaration prohibiting the discharge of projectiles and explosives from balloons.

Conventions respecting the rights and duties of neutral Powers and persons in war on land; for the adaptation of the principles of the Geneva Convention to maritime warfare; relative to the laying of automatic submarine contact mines, and regarding bombardments by naval forces in time of war, were signed with certain reservations.

"The convention for the creation of an **International Court of Appeal in prize matters** was the only instrument attached to the Final Act of the Second Peace Conference which, in accordance with our instructions, we abstained from signing altogether," wrote Sir Edward Fry. There is still time for signing this.

Sir Edward Grey, writing to Sir Edward Fry, said that "the Government shared the satisfaction the delegates felt at having obtained recognition in principle of the need of an International Court of Appeal in prize matters. They were aware that many difficulties, both as regards municipal legislation of this and other countries, and more especially in connection with the law which the Court itself should administer, remained to be overcome before the provisions of the convention creating the Court could become effective; **but the foundation-stone had been laid of a tribunal which in time might prove of inestimable value in the settlement of the class of disputes which had frequently proved a serious source of friction among nations."**

Sir Edward Fry put the point even more forcibly when he wrote that "this convention appears to the delegates to be a very noteworthy step in the history of law as the first attempt to constitute a really International Court, and as the **first device to produce uniformity in any branch of international law."**

SECTION 7: EDUCATIONAL.

THE STATE SCHOOLS.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

The Public Elementary Schools of England and Wales contain accommodation for 7,108,896 children in 20,986 schools. 7,494 are Council Schools (formerly School Board Schools), and 13,492 are **Voluntary** Schools. The **Council Schools** have accommodation for 3,683,376 children, which is about a quarter of a million more than the **Voluntary Schools,** with 3,425,520 places. On the school registers in 1906–7 there were 6,003,772 children, or 19,183 less than in 1905–6.

England and Wales.—The schools are divided between England and Wales thus:

Country.	Schools.	School Accommodation.
England ..	19,186	6,605,591
Wales	1,800	503,305

In Wales, the Council Schools number 1,076, with 366,415 children, as against 724 **Voluntary Schools,** with 136,890 children.

In England alone there are 6,418 **Council Schools,** with 3,316,961 children, as against 12,768 **Voluntary Schools,** with 3,288,630 children.

Ages of Children.—The ages of the children in the various schools in England and Wales were as follows:

Age 3–5	459,034
Age 5–7	1,278,670
Age 7–12	3,185,718
Age 12–15	1,072,911
Age 15 and over	7,439
Total ..	6,003,772

HERE IS A TABLE WHICH SHOWS IN DETAIL THESE TOTAL FIGURES:

Style of School.	Council Schools. Number.	Council Schools. Accommodation. 3	Voluntary Schools. Number.	Voluntary Schools. Accommodation.	Total. Number. 6	Total. Accommodation. 7
1. Ordinary Public Elementary Schools:						
(*a*) Maintained by Local Education Authorities	7,203	3,651,537	13,310	3,393,704	20,513	7,045,241
(*b*) Attached to Boarding Institutions	—	—	60	16,826	60	16,826
2. Higher Elementary Schools:						
(*a*) New Type	31	9,257		897	35	10,154
(*b*) Old Type	25	8,520		290	26	8,810
3. Schools for Blind Children	20	725		1,355	38	2,080
4. Schools for Deaf Children	34	1,919		2,025	49	3,944
5. Day Schools and Classes for Defective Children	179	11,307		—	179	11,307
6. Boarding Schools for Defective Children ..	1	65		523		588
7. Boarding Schools for Epileptic Children ..	1	46		190	4	236
8. "Certified Efficient" Schools	—	—		9,710	74	9,710
Total	7,494	3,683,376	13,492	3,425,520	20,986	7,108,896

VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS.

The denominations of the Voluntary Schools, which are included in these figures, according to the nature of the Religious Instruction given, were as follows:

Items.	Church of England Schools.	Wesleyan Schools.	Roman Catholic Schools.	Jewish Schools.	Undenominational and other Schools
Number of Schools ..	11,274	319	1,061	12	644
Accommodation	2,681,442	117,047	406,137	10,902	178,176

LEMENTARY EDUCATION ENGLAND & WALES

1907 CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE 1907

PROPORTION OF CHILDREN AT DIFFERENT AGES

UNDER 5 YRS OF AGE	5-12 YEARS OF AGE	OVER 12 YEARS OF AGE
497260	4.427650	1069.580

COUNTIES DRAWN TO SCALE ACCORDING TO TOTAL POPULATION

COUNTIES	POPULATION	CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE IN EACH COUNTY
	171707	29000
	253571	43000
	197046	33000
	184753	30000
CHESHIRE	835941	140000
CORNWALL	333896	55600
CUMBERLAND	266933	44300
DERBYSHIRE	599694	100000
DEVON	662196	110000
DORSET	202063	33500
DURHAM	1181774	195000
ESSEX	1084002	180000
GLOUCESTER	708439	115.000
HAMPSHIRE	799.582	133.000
HEREFORD		19000
HERTFORD	303752	50000
HUNTINGDON		9000
KENT	961139	160.000
LANCASHIRE	4.408.093	734.500
LEICESTER	437490	560
LINCOLN	500022	835
LONDON	4.536.541	756.000
MIDDLESEX	792284	132.000
NORFOLK	476533	79300
NORTHAMPTON	338678	55000
NORTHUMBERLAND	603119	100000
NOTTINGHAM	514459	85500
OXFORD	198460	32000
RUTLAND	19704	3500
SHROPSHIRE	239783	40000
SOMERSET	434950	72.500
STAFFORD	1257844	209.300
SUFFOLK	363353	60000
SURREY	653549	109000
SUSSEX	602255	100.300
WARWICK	951.793	160.000
WESTMORELAND	64409	10.500
WILTSHIRE	671394	112000
WORCESTER	453734	76000
YORK East Riding	462921	77000
YORK North Riding	393392	65000
YORK WEST RIDING	2.761.321	460.000
WALES TOTAL FOR ALL THE COUNTIES	2.024.145	333.600
TOTAL POPULATION OF ENGLAND & WALES	34.945.600	CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE 5.994.490

By permission of the British Education Section of the Franco-British Exhibition.

Teachers.—In the English Elementary Schools there were in 1906–7 12,506 men and 16,810 women head teachers, or **a total of 29,316 head teachers.** There were also 19,609 assistant men teachers (certificated and uncertificated) and 71,636 women assistant teachers, or a total of **91,245 assistant teachers.** "**Other teachers**" numbered 44,615. **Wales** has 2,539 teachers. **Pupil teachers.**—There were in 1906–7 the following number of pupils in English pupil teachers' preparatory classes—1,677 boys and 5,473 girls. In addition there were 5,239 boy **pupil teachers** and 19,285 girl **pupil teachers. Wales** has 1,003 **pupil teachers**, 82 pupil teacher centres, and 13 preparatory classes.

Students in Training Colleges.—There were in 1906–7, 48 English residential colleges and 19 day training colleges for teachers, with a combined accommodation of 5,013 resident, and 3,792 day pupils. In addition, there were 18 hostels, with accommodation for 642. The number of **recognised students** was 2,670 men and 5,667 women,

Wales has 7 training colleges for teachers, with accommodation for 296 resident, and 577 day pupils, and also 4 hostels, with accommodation for 136

Religious Connections of Training Colleges—The 48 English residential training colleges consist of **8 undemoninational colleges**, with accommodation for 1,221 students, and **40 denominational colleges**, belonging thus:

No.	Churches.	Accommodation.
31	Church of England	3,611
	Wesleyan	281
	Roman Catholic	631

There are 4 out of the 18 **hostels** attached to **residential colleges**, with accommodation for 151 pupils, and 14 hostels attached to day training colleges, with accommodation for 491 pupils. Seven hostels have religious connection with the Church of England.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The number of secondary schools in England which are recognised as eligible for the grants of the Board of Education was in 1906–7, 676, as against 600 in 1905–6, and 491 in 1904–5, with pupils—boys, 62,712; girls, 50,877; **total, 113,589.** These were divided up into year of the course thus:

1st year	28,470
2nd year	23,616
3rd year	16,574
4th year	8,046

Wales has 92 **secondary** schools recognised by the Board of Education. These have 6,397 boys and 5,692 girls. Of these, 3,846 are in the first year, 2,849 in the second, 1961 in the third, and 1,071 in the fourth.

FURTHER EDUCATION.

In addition to all these schools, the Board of Education gives statistics with regard to the following English "technical institutions, schools of art, and other schools and classes for further education."

The technical institutions number 31, with 521 teachers, and with 2,655 pupils, for 2,075 of whom grants were paid. **The schools of art** recognised number 219, with 1,224 teachers, and with 41,700 students, in 1906–7.

Day technical classes number 93, with 201 classes and 916 teachers and 8,538 students, of whom 7,682 won grants.

Art classes number 43, with 142 teachers and 2,611 students, of whom 2,156 won grants. There are yet "**other schools and classes for further education**, formerly known as **Evening Schools**," which are intended to maintain educational facilities for those already engaged in some occupation which takes up the greater part of their time.

Of these, there are 5,368 schools and classes recognised, with 29,946 teachers, with 687,681 students, of whom 515,897 won the grant in 1906–7. Of these, 408,935 were boys and men, and 278,746 girls and women. Over 221,111 were over 21 years of age. 582,228 of these scholars had been in the public elementary schools, and 85,732 in the secondary schools. 569,198 students paid fees.

The Welsh evening schools number 565, and have 2,130 masters and 48,831 students, of whom 36,071 won grants in 1906–7. Of these, 33,481 are men and boys, and 15,350 girls and women.

COST OF EDUCATION.

The cost of education in England and Wales can only be given so far as it is paid out by Public Authorities—the Board of Education and the Local Education Authorities.

Board of Education.—The total expenditure by the Board out of the Parliamentary vote was:

£12,604,048 in 1906.
£13,166,789 in 1907.

Local Authorities.—The Local Education Authorities received from the Board of Education in 1906 Parliamentary grants to the extent of £10,780,242. Other receipts brought up the amount to £11,173,893. But as the total education payments were £20,403,935, this left a sum of £9,229,952 to **be met by Local Rates.** So that a little over half the expenditure on elementary education is met by Parliamentary grants.

SCOTCH EDUCATION.

There were 792,677 **children on the school registers in Scotland** in 1907, and an average attendance of 692,761. **In the higher grade schools** there were 18,323 children on the registers. At **evening schools** there were 47,002 scholars, and 107,622 more **in continuation schools.**

Teachers.—In the day and higher-grade schools there were 9,711 certificated teachers, 2,614 assistant teachers, and 3,585 pupil teachers.

The expenditure on **Scotch primary schools** in 1907–8 was £1,941,918.

In the 55 Scotch secondary schools there were 10,363 boys and 7,953 girls, with an average attendance of 16,928. The graduate teachers were 498, and the non-graduates were 485; while visiting teachers numbered 219.

IRISH EDUCATION.

There were 8,538 **primary schools in operation in Ireland** in 1907, with 675,471 pupils on the rolls, and an average attendance of 485,979.

The teachers numbered 8,030 trained, **and** 4,675 untrained; 12,705 in all.

The total expenditure by the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland from Parliamentary grants and rates was **£1,470,347.**

LONDON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

IT COSTS £4,500,000.

The London County Council, as the Education Authority for London, spends £5,500,000 on education—£4,500,000 on elementary, and £1,000,000 on higher education. Towards this sum it receives £1,750,000, and the rest of the cost falls on the ratepayers. The Education Rate is 19d. per pound; a penny rate produces about £185,000.

Mr. R. Blair, the Executive Officer of the Education Committee of the L. C. C., has issued an excellent pamphlet (No. 1,188; 3d.), which gives a very lucid explanation of "The Organisation of Education in London." Mr. Cyril Jackson is Chairman of the Executive Committee.

The London County Council is the local authority responsible for all grades of education within the County of London (says Mr. Blair). Practically the whole of the elementary education in London is under the Council's control. In the various branches of higher education the Council is associated with several other authorities, such as the University of London, the City Companies, the governing bodies of endowed secondary schools, and the governing bodies of polytechnics and technical institutes. In the promotion of the different forms of education it is the object of the Council to work in cooperation with the other agencies that are engaged in educational work, and to secure that there is no overlapping or duplication of effort. At the same time the Council works in close association with the Board of Education, which is the central authority entrusted by Parliament with the duty of supervising all branches of education throughout the country.

The administrative staff consists of 1,000 officers, including 41 inspectors and 28 organisers; and there are **20,000** teachers engaged in some **3,000 schools** or departments of schools of all kinds.

As far as the actual management of the schools is concerned, there is still **a distinction between schools provided by the local education** authority—in London the County Council—**and those not so provided,** but the whole duty of maintaining the schools (education, not fabric) is laid upon the local authority, and the same scale of salaries, and in most cases the same regulations, are in force in both types of schools. The schools which were formerly known as voluntary schools are now known as "non-provided" schools, since the buildings are provided by persons other than the local authority. The teachers in the non-provided schools are appointed by the managers (subject to the consent of the Council being obtained), but they are paid out of the rates.

In non-provided schools religious instruction may be and usually is of a denominational character. In the schools provided by the Council the Bible is read, and there are given such explanations and such instruction therefrom in the principles of the Christian religion and of morality as are suited to the capacities of children, provided always that in such explanations and instruction the provisions of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, in section vii. (conscience clause) and xiv. (undenominational instruction) are strictly observed both in letter and spirit, and that no attempt is made in any such schools to attach children to any particular denomination.

In London there are at present 543 provided or L.C.C. schools, with an accommodation for 603,952 children, and an **average attendance of 505,698; and 371 non-provided schools,** with an accommodation for **159,623, and an average attendance of 145,163.**

The age of compulsory attendance at an elementary school is from 5 to 14, although exemption can be obtained on certain conditions after the age of 12. Children under 5, but over 3, are admitted. The enforcement of school attendance employs a large body of officers.

The size of rooms varies greatly, especially in the older schools, but in the most modern buildings no room in senior departments is constructed to accommodate more than 40 children, and none in infants' for more than 48. **The average number of children per class teacher** throughout the service has been steadily decreasing of late years, and is now 45·8 for L.C.C., and 38·8 for non-provided schools.

The school is the focus of much social activity. Play centres, vacation schools, happy evenings, and country holidays are provided by voluntary agencies. Meals for necessitous children are also provided from voluntary funds. The system of provision is supervised by a Central Committee, and locally managed by Children's Care Committees. Apprenticeship Associations assist the children to find skilled employment on leaving school; and After Care Committees assist parents in finding careers for defective children.

Higher Elementary and Higher Grade Schools.—In addition to the ordinary elementary schools which supply the normal type of education, the Council has organised about **52 higher schools (76 departments), which provide a superior elementary education for specially selected pupils.** These higher schools have accommodation for approximately 27,500 pupils, and they are distributed uniformly throughout London. The pupils are selected from the contributory schools by the Council's district inspectors, acting in conjunction with the head masters and head mistresses, and regard is had not only to the ordinary school examination results, but also to the whole career and promise of the pupil.

Open Air Schools.—In continuance of an experiment begun last year, the Council has conducted during the present summer **three open air schools** in different districts of London. The addresses of the schools are as follows—Birley House, Forest Hill, S.E.; Montpelier House, Kentish Town, N.; Shrewsbury House, Shooter's Hill. Each school contains about 70 pupils (boys and girls) selected by the Council's medical officer from those children in adjacent schools who appeared to be likely to derive benefit from the open air treatment. A staff of head and three assistants is allowed to each school, and there are in addition a nurse, cook, cook's assistant, and school-keeper. The school hours are from 9 a.m. to 7 p.m., and the pupils receive at the school three meals a day.

ABOUT SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

WHAT THE L.C.C. IS DOING: NEW SCOTTISH BILL.

Mr. Runciman, M.P., President of the Board of Education, gives this information about our **secondary schools:**

By the Education Act, 1899, the inspection of secondary schools had been specifically provided for, and a "secondary branch" of the Board was formally constituted on April 1st, 1903. It began in a very small way; but its growth has been continuous and rapid. **A powerful secondary inspectorate had been created,** and the branch now dealt with some 800 or more schools, and administered about three-quarters of a million of public money. In 1902, the first year in which grants were paid to secondary schools as such, the number recognised was 272. It rose continuously, and in the Session 1907–8 was 746, educating 122,000 pupils, or 4 per 1,000 of the population. If to these were added the secondary schools not on the Board's grant list, but known to reach a certain standard of efficiency—say 450 schools, educating between 60,000 and 70,000 pupils—the number per 1,000 would be raised to 6·2. The distribution of these schools was imperfect, and their quality often left much to be desired. There was, however, a general tendency in public opinion to regard a complete national system of secondary schools as a desirable ideal.

In 1904 the Board **wholly recast their regulations for secondary schools.** A large variety of curriculum was allowed, according to the requirements of the area, and the aim which a school set before itself. All improvements of curriculum depended on the establishment of proper schools with a satisfactory age entry, prolonged school life, and a sufficient staff. The chief efforts of the Board had, so far, been directed to the provision of these essentials, and in this matter they were now being warmly supported by many local authorities. In regard to the curriculum itself, experts said it was, perhaps, too soon to speak of results, but there was a marked improvement; and, what was most noteworthy, was the vigorous interest and activity in experiment found all over the country.

Accommodation for about 33,000 secondary school pupils is provided in London—15,000 places for boys and 18,000 places for girls—in schools under the control of the Higher Education Sub-Committee of the London County Council. These are educated in classes not exceeding thirty pupils to one teacher, and the regulations require 16 sq. ft. for every pupil in a class-room.

No figures (says the Executive Officer of Higher Education) are available in the London area with regard to the provision of accommodation in private schools, but as regards accommodation in public and semi-public schools, a preliminary investigation shows that it is about 7·7 per 1,000 of the population—3·4 boys, 4·3 girls.

Even allowing for the fact that a considerable proportion of London children of the upper and middle classes receive their education at boarding schools in the country, the provision of secondary school accommodation for London falls very far short of that of Prussia, and very short of the average for the United States (10·61 per 1,000). To provide secondary school place in London on the same average as the United States **it would be necessary to increase the present accommodation by nearly one-half.**

It has for some time been evident that the necessary increase of secondary school accommodation cannot be secured from the existing schools only, and the Council has accordingly established secondary schools of its own. The Council's policy has followed two main lines. On the one hand, scholarships have been provided sufficient in number to aid all children fully capable of profiting by secondary education to secure the advantages of such education. On the other hand, the Council has provided new secondary schools in areas hitherto unprovided for, and aided existing schools to increase their accommodation or efficiency.

The greater part of the Secondary Education in London is provided in schools which are not maintained by the Council. Out of 90 such schools managed by governing bodies, 40 are independent of the Council's assistance. But the Council gives grants to 51 secondary schools with a view to higher efficiency. In 1906–7 the sum of £74,275 was paid to such schools; £32,000 of this was due to the fees of pupils holding L.C.C. scholarships, and £42,275 for ordinary maintenance grant.

County Council Scholarships.—The L.C.C. awards every year about **1,900 Junior County Scholarships, about 100 Intermediate County Scholarships,** and about **50 Senior County Scholarships and Exhibitions.** A considerable proportion of the Senior County Scholarships and Exhibitions are gained every year by candidates who have already held Intermediate County Scholarships.

SCOTTISH BILL.

An important change in Scottish Education is introduced by the Scottish Education Bill, which was read a second time in the Commons without a division on May 5th, 1908.

Mr. R. B. Haldane, M.P., defines its purpose in these words:

"**The first step was practically being taken to make education in Scotland compulsory up to the age of seventeen.** It was satisfactory that this far-reaching proposition had been received so favourably in Scotland. Education was now compulsory up to fourteen. After that age, a boy or girl taken away and put to some trade or business was cut off from any chance of fitting themselves for a better trade position. There had been nothing to bridge the gulf between the elementary and the higher school.

"The two principles adopted in the Bill were, **first, that secondary education should not be a luxury but a right and duty; and, next, that that education should not be of the Board-school type, but should be something to touch practical employment in life and to enlarge the mind.** Attendance at the continuation schools which it was proposed to establish would be at the discretion of the School Boards. **The Boards would be empowered to make bye-laws compelling attendance at a continuation school.**

THE EDUCATION BILL (1908).

A SUMMARY OF ITS PROVISIONS.

Here is a summary of the chief provisions of the Education Bill as introduced to the House of Commons by the President of the Board of Education on February 24th, 1908:

The Bill contemplates the following new classification of schools:—

Council "provided" rate-aided schools, containing accommodation for every child whose parent desires his child to be educated in a school of this type. In these schools the religious instruction will be (as in the present Council schools) simple Bible teaching, as provided by the Cowper-Temple Clause of the Act of 1870. There is to be absolute public control in all these rate-aided schools, and no tests for teachers.

Denominational "non-provided" non-rate-aided schools, under private (i.e., denominational) management, attended solely by the children of parents desiring this type of school, and maintained in part by a Parliamentary grant of 47s. a child, except in "single-school parishes."

Elementary School Defined.—An elementary school shall not be recognised as a public elementary school unless it is **a school provided by the local education authority,** and conducted by them in accordance with the statutory provisions affecting schools so provided, and is also a school in which **no teacher employed is required as a condition of his employment to subscribe to any religious creed,** or to belong or not to belong to any specified religious denomination, or to attend or abstain from attending any Sunday-school or place of religious worship, or (except in the case of a teacher employed to give religious instruction only) to give any religious instruction.

A local education authority shall not maintain or aid an elementary school unless it is a public elementary school, and **shall provide accommodation in public elementary schools without payment of fees for all children resident in their area whose parents desire that accommodation for them,** and also for any other children resident in the area who are from any cause not receiving efficient elementary education.

No Parliamentary grant in aid of a non-provided school shall be paid unless—

(a) It is not a school in a single-school parish.

(b) It has at least thirty children in attendance.

(c) It is open to inspection and efficient in all ways.

The grant to such a school shall not exceed 47s. per child.

Denominational Schools.—The trustees of an elementary school held under charitable trusts may, notwithstanding those trusts, transfer the schoolhouse to the local education authority, but no payment shall be made by the local education authority in respect of the transfer of an elementary school being an existing voluntary school in a single-school parish.

If a local education authority apply to the Board of Education for an order vesting the schoolhouse of an existing voluntary school in a single-school parish in the authority, and the Board are satisfied that the schoolhouse is held under limited trusts, the Board shall make an order vesting the schoolhouse in the authority without payment, unless the trustees desire to continue the use of the schoolhouse for the purposes of a certified efficient school, and satisfy the Board that there is a reasonable probability of such a school being maintained.

Where the schoolhouse of any existing voluntary school is transferred to the local education authority, whether in pursuance of the powers given by this section or otherwise, the authority may, as a condition of the transfer, give the undertakings numbered (1) and (2) **in the First Schedule to this Act, and** in the case of a single-school parish also the undertaking numbered (3) in that schedule, and, where a schoolhouse is vested in a local education authority by virtue of an order of the Board of Education made under this section, shall give any of those undertakings which the trustees require them to give, but no other undertaking shall be given to the transferers or trustees in respect of the use of the schoolhouse by them.

The following are the three undertakings referred to in the preceding clause:

(1) An undertaking to provide such religious instruction as may be specified by the trustees or transferers, and is in accordance with the London County Council syllabus (see page 167).

(2) An undertaking to put the schoolhouse, properly cleaned, warmed, and lighted, at the disposal of the trustees or transferers for the purpose of being used by them or under their authority on Saturdays and Sundays.

(3) In the case of a single-school parish, an undertaking to put the schoolhouse, properly cleaned, warmed, and lighted, at the disposal of the trustees or transferers for the purpose of being used by them or under their authority for the giving of any religious instruction (consistent with the trusts affecting the schoolhouse in the case of a schoolhouse subject to trusts) immediately before or after any meeting of the school, but no teachers employed by the authority are to be permitted to give that instruction.

Teachers.—Where an existing voluntary school is transferred to a local education authority, any teachers in the school at the time of the transfer or vesting shall continue to hold office under the local education authority by the same tenure and on the same terms and conditions so far as they are consistent with the provisions of this Act as before the transfer or vesting.

This Bill was read a second time on May 30th by 370 to 205 votes—a majority of 165.

As we go to press it is announced that this Bill is withdrawn, and that another Bill will be introduced—"one which," said Mr. Asquith, "all parties who were really anxious for a settlement of the vexed and long-standing controversy might, without any sacrifice of principle, concur in accepting."

EMPLOYMENT AFTER EDUCATION.

A PROBLEM SOLVED.

THE VIEWS OF THE DUCHESS OF MARLBOROUGH, THE KING'S SOLICITOR-GENERAL (Sir Samuel Evans), and SIR ALBERT ROLLIT

(Chairman of the London Chamber of Commerce Education Committee).

Perhaps the most pressing national problem of the day is the unemployment that exists among all classes of society—among the educated and refined, as well as among labourers and artisans. But while the case of the latter is ever before the public mind, the pressing need of the former is often overlooked.

The remarks, therefore, of such men of eminence and repute as Sir Samuel Evans, the King's Solicitor-General, and Sir Albert Rollit, Chairman of the Education Committee of the London Chamber of Commerce, cannot fail to be of the deepest interest to all concerned in the welfare of the rising generation, while the opinion of a woman at once of such a striking personality and so unique a social position as the Dûchess of Marlborough must carry great weight with parents and guardians of the more educated and cultured classes.

HISTORY.

The Solicitor-General, speaking from the Chair on the occasion of the recent twenty-first anniversary of Kensington College, when her Grace the Duchess of Marlborough distributed the prizes and certificates to the successful students, remarked :

"The history of the College is the history of a progressive institution, which is really required in our educational system. No one who has anything to do with public life is unaware of the fact that many people who are admirably equipped for work, both men and women, are unable to find employment. Constantly men in public life have brought to their attention young people, some from the schools, some from the colleges—yes, indeed, some from the universities—who say they have attained their degrees or achieved success in their colleges and schools, and who yet do not know how to perform the actual work of life, and that part of the educational system of this country which is deficient in many respects from the public point of view appears to me to be admirably done by this College. The College is certainly, as I think, filling a most excellent place in our educational system."

Sir Albert Rollit, on the same occasion, made a statement of almost stupendous signification, for he stated that, in his opinion, the College had solved "one of the greatest, the most complex and the most difficult of all educational problems—that of securing Employment after Education."

The Duchess of Marlborough referred to the great pleasure it had been to her the week before to come into personal contact with the students of the college. She had watched them at their work with the keenest interest, and commented especially on the intensely *practical* nature of the instruction given. She said :

"It is this practical aspect which especially appeals to me, for we all know that many young men and young women who have received the highest education are unable, from want of knowledge of technical and secretarial work, to obtain posts worthy of their acceptance. Now, the education which they receive at Kensington College does away with this difficulty, and completes their training, making it efficient and business-like. Then they are not only fitted to fill posts, but they are also guaranteed a good position to start with."

Her Grace went on to wish all the students—and in particular the young women students—the greatest success in their careers, and stated she considered much credit was due to the Director, Mr. J. Munford, for the splendid results achieved by the graduates of Kensington College.

Mr. James Munford was able to state in the course of his speech that on this twenty-first anniversary of the foundation of the college there was not a single qualified student seeking an appointment, and that during the past year the applications for the services of the College graduates had exceeded the number of students available.

The College had also succeeded in capturing the blue riband of the London Chamber of Commerce for proficiency in modern languages, and had obtained a long list of successes at the various examinations.

AIM.

The aim of Kensington College is to provide for every boy and girl a definite and practical training, followed by the **absolute guarantee of a remunerative career** as soon as the student be qualified to perform the duties thereof.

It may be news to some of our readers when we say that for the last twenty-one years Kensington College has been undertaking this huge responsibility.

MOTTO.

The motto adopted by the College is one that was suggested by the Right Hon. the Earl of Lytton when speaking from the Chair at a recent distribution. Having in mind Dante's dread warning over the gates of the Inferno, he thought it would be appropriate to inscribe over the portals of Kensington College the following variation thereof : "Have every hope all ye who enter here."

EMPLOYMENT AFTER EDUCATION—continued.

METHODS.

An account of the methods of Kensington College and the results achieved may be interesting.

When the qualities of heart, of mind, and of intellect have been trained by a liberal general education—that is to say, when the boys and girls have left their public schools and universities—they may apply for admission to Kensington College as students of the secretarial course or of the special City course, entering for the first, second, or third-class diploma, as the case may be.

TRAINING.

The students are trained as private secretaries, English and foreign correspondents, accountants, and bookkeepers, and for other vocations of a responsible and remunerative nature.

MODEL OFFICES.

When the academic side of the training is completed, and all the subjects which comprise the lower rungs of the ladder of success have been mastered—such as shorthand, bookkeeping, typewriting, modern languages, and office routine—the students are drafted into the "model offices." The model offices are fitted up with all the requisites of a secretarial bureau. Shannon files, vertical files, card indices, pigeon-holes, desks, mimeographing machines, copying presses—old and new methods—typewriters, and all the thousand and one things necessary to carry on secretarial duties in the most expeditious and efficient manner. Here will be found students who can speak modern languages almost as fluently as their mother tongue; who can write shorthand, type their notes accurately and well; and who are able also to perform journalistic duties.

In the absence of their chief, they are capable of taking charge of the office, of interviewing visitors, and of conducting the greater part of his correspondence. They are able to go on missions of delicacy as ambassadors for their chief, and to bring delicate negotiations to a successful issue; they are able to write an essay or a lecture, to get out statistics, and to make searching literary investigations.

KENSINGTON COLLEGE DIPLOMA.

When they have thus given sufficient practical proof of their ability to discharge their duties in a thoroughly efficient manner, they are granted the Kensington College Diploma of the first, second, or third class, in accordance with their qualifications. The Kensington College diploma, in a certain sense, and within certain limits, may be truly said to be more valuable than the diploma of any other institution in the world, seeing that the holder possesses the right of introduction to a dignified and remunerative appointment.

GUARANTEED APPOINTMENTS AND SALARIES.

The year 1908 has been marked by the unusual number of valuable appointments which have been placed at the disposal of the well-known Director of this successful institution.

Improbable as it may seem to the uninitiated, the trouble at Kensington College is not to secure appointments for the candidates, but to prepare quickly enough properly qualified candidates to fill the ever-increasing number of vacancies placed in the hands of the Director.

The work of this unique institution certainly carries comfort to the hearts of the parents and guardians who entrust their charges to its care. When the boys and girls have "finished their education" at high school, public school, or university, and the question of a self-supporting profession arises, then it is that Kensington College steps in, and Mr. Munford takes responsibility from the shoulders of parents and guardians in equipping every one of his students for the stern duties of life. He goes a very great way further even than this, for he positively guarantees and successfully redeems his promise to provide a satisfactory appointment—a dignified and remunerative position—for every one of his students when qualified to perform the duties thereof.

The opinion which the late Lord Nunburnholme held of Kensington College is evidenced by his taking the Chair at a recent distribution of prizes by her Grace the Dowager Duchess of Roxburghe, and by his lordship having applied to the College for the services of secretaries (private and otherwise) at salaries of £130 (for a lady), £250, and £800 per annum.

That eminent orator, the Rev. Canon Barker, has borne eloquent testimony to the efficacy of the College work. Speaking at a recent prize distribution, he said:

"Kensington College differs from any other I have heard of, inasmuch as it not only educates the students, but provides positions for them in the world afterwards."

ALMA MATER.

The increasing demand from peers, Members of Parliament, authors, doctors, solicitors, architects, and other professional men, often enables the College to materially improve the position of ex-students, who are duly advised of any opening likely to promote their welfare.

PROSPECTUS AND SOUVENIR BOOKLET.

A card addressed to the Assistant Secretary, Kensington College, Queen's Road, Bayswater, London, W., will bring by return of post an illustrated prospectus containing full particulars of the guaranteed appointment system, as well as a dainty souvenir booklet, similar in all respects, save the binding, to that recently graciously accepted by her Royal Highness Princess Louise, Duchess of Argyll. This gives a full account of the presentation of prizes by the Duchess of Marlborough on the twenty-first anniversary of the College and a complete report of the speeches made by eminent men on that occasion, some extracts from which have been given above.

CONSULTATIONS.

It is always interesting for those concerned in the welfare of the rising generation to visit Kensington College, where the Director is ever ready to give his advice on the subject of a suitable career for boy or girl, and to give detailed and expert counsel of the greatest value.

NONCONFORMISTS AND EDUCATION.

WHY THEY OBJECT TO THE EDUCATION ACTS.

The objections of Nonconformists to the Education Acts passed in 1902 and 1903 are based on three main grievances, two of which are now admitted by all parties, and will be remedied in any Bill which is passed.

One of these admitted grievances is that at present there is not full public control of the spending of public school money. Voluntary school managers are four as against two appointed by the education authority. Nonconformists claim that all the school managers must be appointed by the paying authority. Mr. McKenna's Bill, and that of the Bishop of St. Asaph, both agree on this. So this long-contested point is accepted, but not yet remedied.

The second grievance concerns the teachers. The teachers at present in voluntary or sectarian schools are appointed by the voluntary school managers, though the salaries are paid by the education authority. These teachers are also subjected to tests which keep a large number of highly qualified teachers out of the voluntary schools, though they are supported by public funds. Over 16,000 head teachers, and over 30,000 assistant teachers, are required for these sectarian schools, so that the issue is a very considerable one.

The Nonconformists have consistently demanded that no tests should be imposed on teachers, and that their appointment should be made by the spending authority.

The justice of this is now admitted, and is embodied in Mr. McKenna's Bill and in that of the Bishop of St. Asaph.

The third point about which the issue is still uncertain concerns the payment by the State for teaching which is distinctive of particular Churches.

Anglicans and Roman Catholics and Jews claim that they should have the right—and under the existing Acts they have it—to give such education to the children in the schools which they provide ("Non-provided" schools). In the ordinary schools—"Provided," or School Board schools—what is known as the Cowper-Temple Bible teaching is given. This consists of "simple Bible teaching" without the formularies of any Church.

The Cowper-Temple Clause leaves to the local authority complete freedom so far as religious instruction is concerned, subject to two conditions. In the first place, no formularies distinctive of any particular denomination must be used; and, secondly, no attempt must be made to attach any child to a particular denomination. (See page 214.)

There is provision for nearly 7,000,000 children in our public schools, and about half of this provision is in voluntary schools, so that the issue is an important one. Further, in **about 8,000 villages in England and Wales there is no other school than the voluntary school,** and Nonconformist children are compelled to go to these, which is also an admitted injustice. **The point at issue is how this injustice is to be remedied.**

Mr. McKenna's Bill makes all the schools in the land receiving rate aid, provided schools and unsectarian schools, in which the Cowper-Temple Bible teaching would be given.

But he allows schools which will not accept these terms to contract out. That is, they would get State aid, but not rate aid. In the sectarian schools which accept his terms, he allows them to provide for the teaching of the Catechism on non-school days—Saturdays and Sundays.

The Bishop of St. Asaph is willing to make all the schools public rate-aided schools with simple Bible teaching—"inter-denominational religious instruction," he calls it. But he asks for facilities for denominational teaching **in all the schools,** even in the old Board schools which have never had it.

Mr. Asquith, speaking on the Education Bill (October 11th), said:

"I do not believe there was any question which at the General Election two and a half years ago more deeply moved the convictions and the sentiments of the electors of England and Wales, or contributed more largely to the great demonstration of Liberal opinion. Nearly three years have elapsed, and the question still remains unsettled, and yet the grievance, the old grievance—what was it? The grievance that rates money drawn from the pocket of the ratepayer was appropriated to the maintenance of sectarian teaching without popular control—that grievance exists as widely, is felt as keenly, as it was three years ago."

Sir Edward Grey, speaking on the religious difficulty in education, said:

"The strength of this country's great work for freedom and humanity in the world was, no doubt, derived largely from the fact that the great mass of our people had been educated in the Christian system of ethics. To-day we had come to a point where he hoped to see a complete system of national education established. Such a system—teaching by and at the expense of the State—must either comprise religious teaching on broad, comprehensive, non-denominational lines, or be purely secular.

"**The secular system would be logical;** but, like most things logical, incomplete. It would not solve, but evade, the religious difficulty. It would leave out of education one of the great elements that had gone to build up our national character. If, as he believed, the great majority of the parents desired Biblical teaching it would be illogical to deprive them of it because a minority considered Biblical teaching not worth having unless under denominational auspices. For those who did not take such a broad view some provision might be made; but the difficulty should not drive the whole country into giving up religious education as if the question was insoluble."

Mr. Runciman declares that the Government bore no enmity to the Established and the Roman Catholic Churches, but, quite emphatically, there could be no settlement of this question so long as they persistently adhered to every artificial privilege which they possessed. There could only be a settlement on one basis, and that was the basis of religious equality.

THE EDUCATION BILL.

WHY ANGLICANS OPPOSE IT & DEFEND THEIR SCHOOLS.

Here is the case of the Church of England in defence of its schools and against the Education Bill, 1908. It has been specially prepared by the Church Defence and Instruction Committee:

It was not until **1870** that the State took any direct part in providing education for the children of this country. **In 1870 there were already 6,382 Church of England schools;** and in that year Parliament passed an Act setting up Board schools, with the object of **supplementing** Church of England and other voluntary schools.

In reliance upon these statements, and directly encouraged by successive Governments, **the** voluntary schools increased, until in **1903** there were 13,487 such schools—**11,377 Church of England, 345 Wesleyan, 1,034 Roman Catholic, 12 Jewish, and 689 undenominational.**

Between 1833 and 1881 the State gave **grants to the amount of about a million and a half pounds towards the building of 5,102 of these various schools,** the rest of the cost being supplied by voluntary effort; the remaining 8,385 schools were built entirely out of private money.

Between 1870 and 1902 these schools earned grants of public money from the State for assisting in the secular education of the children on its behalf, but not nearly enough to pay for the whole cost of education given in these schools. **In the years 1894–1902, £6,771,286 was supplied from private endowments and contributions towards this object in Church of England schools,** quite apart from what was given towards the cost of new buildings, structural alterations, administration and inspection. They received no rate-aid, and were entirely free from the control of any popularly elected body.

By the Act of 1902 the State obtained the use of these Church schools as part of its system of public education, without paying anything for the school buildings, and the most popularly elected bodies in the country obtained complete and absolute control over everything connected with the secular, or non-religious, education given in them. And not one penny of public money can be spent in connection with them except by the authority of these popular bodies. Moreover, the Church of England has to supply the funds for keeping the schools in structural repair and for necessary alterations and improvements in them. **In London alone nearly half a million has been raised to meet the London County Council's requirements.**

At a moderate estimate, **the Church of England must have spent about £50,000,000 upon its elementary schools.** And it must be remembered that members of the Church have always paid, equally with everyone else, their share of the rates and taxes which go towards education.

Why have members of the Church of England undertaken all this immense expenditure on these schools? They say that they have done **so with the specific object that definite Church of England teaching should be given in them, as part of the instruction, to the children of those parents who desire them to receive it.** This object the Act of 1902 respected; it left the managers of the schools the right to see that this instruction is given, and that the teachers who are called upon to give it believe in what they teach. **The Wesleyans, the Roman Catholics, the Jews, &c., retain the same rights on the same terms in the schools which they have built: all religious bodies are treated exactly alike.**

In the schools which have been built and maintained out of public funds, the Board schools, which are now called "Council schools," or "provided schools," no religious teaching distinctive of any particular religious body is given, and there is no provision that the teachers shall believe in what they teach. **In all schools of every kind a child may be withdrawn by the parent from the religious teaching.**

Churchmen hold that the broad, practical result of Mr. McKenna's Bill must be, either immediately or in the course of a short period, the appropriation of the Church of England schools throughout the country. The main object of trust-deeds is to be frustrated.

One kind of religious teaching alone is in future to be allowed to be given in public elementary schools, and all alike are to be forced to pay for it. That kind of religious teaching is acceptable to Nonconformists, but is not accepted as satisfactory by very many members of the Church of England. So long as the latter were permitted to supply other teaching as part of the school course in those schools which they had built with that object, and to pay for it by providing the buildings and undertaking their upkeep, alterations, and improvements, they submitted to the grievance of having to pay also through the rates for the support of religious teaching in Board or Council schools not accepted as satisfactory by them.

If that arrangement is to be altered, they claim that the whole system of public elementary education must be so reconstructed as not to be inconsistent with the right of the parent to decide the character of the religious teaching to be given to his child.

TRAINING COLLEGES.

As the Church of England and other training colleges for teachers are largely supported by public funds, it has been decided by the Board of Education that:

In the selection of **candidates for half the number of places which will be vacant in 1908,** the authorities of a college may not reject the application of any candidate, not belonging to the denomination of the college, on the ground of religious faith or by reason of his refusal to undertake to attend or abstain from attending any place of religious worship or any religious observance, or instruction in religious subjects in the college or elsewhere.

In no circumstances may the application of a candidate be rejected on the ground of social antecedents or the like.

COWPER-TEMPLE BIBLE TEACHING.

Here is the syllabus of Bible instruction given in the London County Council schools in the current year. This syllabus is given as a schedule in Mr. McKenna's last Education Bill as a model for all provided schools.

In the schools provided by the Council the **Bible shall be read**, and there shall be given such explanations and such instruction therefrom in the principles of the Christian religion and of morality as are suited to the capacities of children, provided always:

That in such explanations and instruction **the provisions of the Elementary Education Act, 1870**, in sections vii. and xiv. **be strictly observed**, both in letter and spirit, and that no attempt be made in any such schools to attach children to any particular denomination. (Article 80 of the School Management Code provisionally adopted by the Council.)

General Instruction.—The teachers are desired to **make the lessons as practical as possible**, and not to give attention to unnecessary details.

In boys', girls', and mixed schools working lists of lessons based upon the syllabus should be drawn up at the beginning of the school year, and should be submitted to the Council's inspector when he visits the school.

In the following syllabus the word "studies" means portions of the book referred to which are read or considered during the periods of instruction.

The word "lessons" means deductions bearing upon life and conduct drawn by the teacher from the portions of Scripture studied.

Head teachers of infant schools must draw up a syllabus of lessons for children below Standard I., and submit it to the Council's inspector when he visits the school.

Standard I.—Learn the Lord's Prayer and Psalm xxiii. Simple stories from the Book of Genesis. Leading facts in the life of our Lord, told in simple language.

Standard II.—Learn the Lord's Prayer and Psalm xxiii. Learn the Ten Commandments and St. Matthew xxii., verses 35–40. Lessons from the life of Moses. Simple lessons from the life of our Lord.

Standard III.—Learn the Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments; St. Matthew xxii., verses 35–40. Learn St. Matthew v., verses 1–12; and Psalm cxxi. Studies from the Pentateuch, with special reference to the lives of Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, and Moses, and the practical lessons to be derived therefrom. Fuller account of the life of our Lord, with lessons drawn from the following parables: "The Sower," "The Prodigal Son," "The Good Samaritan," "The Lost Sheep," "The Pharisee and the Publican," "The Talents."

Standard IV.—Learn the Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments; St. Matthew v., verses 1–12; and St. Matthew xxii., verses 35–40; and Psalm cxxi. Learn St. John xiv., verses 1–15; and Psalm xxiv. Studies from the Book of Joshua. Lessons from the Gospel according to St. Luke, i.–xiii.

Standard V.—Learn the Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments; Psalm cxxi.; St. Matthew v., verses 1–12. Learn 1 Corinthians xii., verse 31, and chapter xiii., and Psalms xxiii. and xci., and Proverbs xxiv., verses 27–34, and xxxi., verses 10–31, and Romans xiii., verses 8–10. Lessons from the lives of Samuel and David, and from the Book of Amos. Lessons from the Gospel according to St. Luke, xiv.–end.

Standard VI.—Learn the Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments; Psalm xxiii.; St. Matthew v., verses 1–12; and xxii., verses 35–40. Learn Psalms cxxi. and cxxii.; Isaiah lii., verses 13–15, and liii.; and 1 Corinthians xii., verse 31; and chapter xiii. Studies from the life and times of Elijah and Elisha. Lessons from the Sermon on the Mount, St. Matthew v., vi., and vii. Lessons from the Gospel according to St. John, i.–xiii.

Standard VII.—Learn the Lord's Prayer; the Ten Commandments; Psalm xxiii.; St. Matthew v., verses 1–12; and Matthew xxii., verse 35–40. Learn Psalm xci., Isaiah lv., and Hebrews i. Lessons on the life and times of Hezekiah, Ezra, and Nehemiah (alternate course). Lessons from the Book of Daniel (alternate course). Lessons from St. Matthew v., vi., and vii. Lessons from the Gospel according to St. John, xiv.–end. Study of the Acts of the Apostles, i.–xii.

Ex-Standard VII.—Repeat Standard VII. work. Learn Isaiah xxxv., and Psalms li. and ciii. Study of the Acts of the Apostles, xiii.–xxviii. Lessons from the Epistle to the Romans, chapters xii.–xv.

U.S.A. EDUCATION.

It is estimated that in 1906 the United States spent 500 millions of dollars (£100,000,000) on Education. Of this, more than 300 millions were spent on the public schools; about 45 millions on universities, colleges, and schools of technology (says the "World's Work"). The other kinds of schools run thus in order of their expenditure:

Private schools ..	21	millions
Schools for the defective	7½	"
Normal schools	6¾	"
Reformatory schools ..	5½	"
Professional schools ..	3	"
Commercial schools ..	3	"

In the public schools and colleges there were about 20 million pupils—one out of every four of the population.

NOT AN EDUCATION BILL.

The Education and Local Government Groups of the Fabian Society, criticise the 1908 "Education Bill" thus:

"That the Bill is unique among the many Education Bills of the past fifty years in not containing a single clause which even professes to make the schools better or local government more efficient—at any rate, over the nineteen-twentieths of the country outside the single-school parish

"That instead of seeking to render more effective the control of the local representative authority over the non-provided schools, it provides the means by which a considerable proportion of them, whilst remaining very largely supported from public funds, will escape from such control as already exists."

ANGLICAN CHURCH STATISTICS.

Here are the chief statistics concerning the Church of England (37 dioceses, including 4 Welsh dioceses) as given in the "Official Year Book" for 1908. The figures are for 1906–7.

Rural Deaneries	835
Incumbents	13,897
Baptisms : Infants	586,564
Adults	13,692
Communicants at Easter	2,103,902
Confirmations (1907)	227,869
Parish Church Accommodation :	
Appropriated	1,160,334
Free	4,579,268
Other Church Accommodation :	
Appropriated	60,881
Free	1,368,674
Extra-Parochial	82,962
Sunday Services. Number of Churches which held services :	
Once	4,472
Twice	12,043
More than twice	4,210
Every weekday	5,749
Sunday Scholars :	
Number on books	2,448,193
Bible Classes : Male	296,067
Female	278,269
Sunday-school Teachers	208,608
Churchwardens	115,959
Licensed Readers	3,348
Deaconesses : Paid	679
Voluntary	212
Sisters : Paid	677
Voluntary	454
District Vsitors : Paid	705
Voluntary	71,890
Bellringers : Paid	18,960
Voluntary	29,672
Incomes of Benefices :	
Gross, including Easter offerings	£4,576,199
Net	£3,830,743
Easter offerings	£105,789
Stipends of Assistant Clergy :	
From all sources	£1,045,384
Parishes with Parsonages	12,433
Contributions to Clerical Income, including Easter voluntary contributions	£846,726
Current Church Expenses	£1,480,269
Voluntary Contributions :	
1904–5	£8,029,718
1905–6	£7,768,410
1906–7	£7,462,244
Total from 1897—1907	£77,917,110

WELSH FIGURES.

Here are some statistics concerning the four Welsh dioceses of the Church of England—Bangor, Llandaff, St. Asaph, and St. David's—taken from the "Church of England Year Book," 1908.

Diocese.	Incumbents.	Communicants.	S. S. Scholars
St. David's ..	144	14,496	12,674
Bangor ..	247	49,731	64,777
Llandaff ..		26,259	23,687
St. Asaph ..	371	45,478	33,585

CHURCH PROPERTY RETURNS.

The Ecclesiastical Commissioners supply the summary in next column of the revenues of the Church of England in 1891 :

Items.	Ancient Endowments.	Private Benefices since 1903.
	£	£
I. Archiepiscopal and episcopal sees	87,827	11,081
II. Cathedral and collegiate churches	192,460	
III. Ecclesiastical benefices	3,941,057	272,605
IV. Ecclesiastical Commissioners	1,247,827	
V. Queen Anne's Bounty		700
Total gross income	5,469,171	284,386

STATISTICS OF THE FREE CHURCHES.

This summary table of the statistics of the Free Churches is compiled by Mr. Howard Evans.

Church.	Sittings.	Communicants.	Sunday-school Teachers.	Sunday-school Scholars.	Ministers.	Local Preachers.
Baptists	1,366,292	405,755	56,426	565,503	1,977	5,413
Congregationalists	1,698,269	459,983	66,303	690,184	2,238	5,466
Presbyterians	177,304	85,755	8,136	88,609	316	—
Wesleyan Methodists	2,300,586	618,580	132,116	991,029	2,248	21,246
Primitive Methodists	1,045,644	204,053	60,451	470,095	1,102	16,259
United Meth. Church	746,075	164,071	42,699	322,756	762	5,621
Calvinistic Methodists	495,080	187,768	27,805	193,689	921	318
Salvation Army	508,500	—	—	—	—	—
Society of Friends	—	17,767 (Members)	1,901	65,032	—	—
Seven Smaller Bodies	146,175	40,182	9,554	84,379	130	1,522
Total	8,483,925	2,183,914	405,391	3,471,276	9,694	55,845

MORAL INSTRUCTION INQUIRY.

REMARKABLE CONSENSUS OF OPINION.

A very important report of an International Inquiry on Moral Instruction and Training in schools was issued in 1908 (Longman; 2 vols., 5s. each), edited by Professor Sadler, of Manchester University.

The first volume concerns itself with the United Kingdom, the second with the British Colonies and France, Belgium, Scandinavia, Switzerland, Germany, the United States, and Japan. A provisional committee, consisting of Professor Sadler, the Rev. Dr. Paton, the Rev. J. Brierley, Mr. W. T. Stead, Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., and the Secretary of the Moral Instruction League, authorised the issuing of a circular letter signed by the Bishops of Hereford, Ripon, and Stepney, Sir Edward Fry, Mr. A. H. Dyke Acland, Sir Oliver Lodge, Professor Sadler, the Rev. Dr. Paton, and the Secretary of the League, inviting a very considerable number of representative persons to become members of an Advisory Council, under whose auspices the inquiry would be carried out.

The invitation met with a remarkable response, and the Council soon consisted of some 900 persons, of almost every shade of political and religious thought, and of almost all forms of educational experience, including seven peers, nine bishops of the Church of England, the chief representatives of Nonconformity, the Chief Rabbi, a Jesuit, leading Unitarians, Quakers, Salvationists, Ethicists, Rationalists, over fifty Members of Parliament, a great number of picked persons in every department of education in the United Kingdom, and leading representatives in art, literature, science, &c. Professor Sadler can, with strict justice, in his introduction, say:

"No more representative a council has ever been formed for the investigation of an educational problem in this country."

On the executive, as finally constituted, there were three bishops of the Church of England, two leading Roman Catholics, representative Nonconformists, a Jew, a Unitarian, a Positivist, a Rationalist, and prominent men and women in education.

Here are some of the conclusions which this widely representative committee have authorised Professor Sadler to issue:

"The Committee have reached the conclusion that in all public elementary schools **at least one lesson a week should be devoted to instruction in the principles of personal, social, and civic duty**, as illustrated by examples drawn from Scripture and from other religious literatures, and from poetry, biography, art, &c. Such instruction should, of course, be **adapted to the age of the children and to their stage of development.** It should follow a **systematic plan on the teacher's part; but the latter should have freedom in the choice of methods of imparting the instruction.**

"The Committee are drawn to the further **conclusion that the syllabuses of religious instruction should be carefully considered by those in authority, and, when necessary, revised, in order that teachers may be enabled and authorised to give more time to definite moral instruction than is now in many instances the case.**

"There is general agreement among experienced teachers that direct moral instruction, when given at the right time and in the right way, is a valuable element in moral education.

"We may nevertheless fairly say that there is in our country an ideal of practical morality which, for practical purposes, can be taken as a basis for school teaching by thinkers of almost all schools of thought."

Finally, the need of **more adequate training of teachers** to fit them for their functions as moral educators is strongly urged.

Vol. I. opens with eleven chapters dealing with "The Roots of the Problem." The contributors here are in order: Professor Eucken (of Jena), Dr. F. H. Hayward, Professor Findlay, Professor John Adams, Mr. F. J. Gould, Dr. Sophie Bryant, Professor Muirhead, the Rev. Chancellor Bernard, the Headmaster of Eton, the Rev. Michael Maher, S.J., Professor William James, President Stanley Hall, M. Alfred Fouillée, the Bishop of Birmingham, Dr. Bernard Bosanquet, and Dr. Felix Adler.

The second volume opens with the reports of the special investigators in France. The first of these is contributed by Mr. Harrold Johnson. This is followed by reports from the Catholic and Protestant points of view, and by a further report on girls' schools in France. Mr. J. H. Yoxall, M.P., writes the report on Belgium, Miss Forchhammer on Denmark, Dr. Otto Anderssen on Norway, Mr. Gustav Spiller on boys' schools in Germany and Switzerland, and Miss Montgomery on girls' schools in the same countries. Then there are three reports from the United States, and reports from Canada, New South Wales, Victoria, West Australia, New Zealand, and Japan.

When Mr. Birrell was at the Board of Education, **provision was made** in the **education code for Moral Instruction** in Council schools. The Moral Instruction League has been inquiring how many of the 300 odd Education Authorities have taken definite action in providing for Moral Instruction in their schools. The action taken varies considerably; but **ninety-five authorities have taken some definite action**, either in connection with the Scripture time or with the secular time.

The office of the Moral Instruction League is 6, York Buildings, Adelphi, W.C. Secretary: Mr. Harrold Johnson.

A CHURCH PAGEANT.

An English Church pageant is to take place in the grounds of **Fulham Palace** from June 10th to June 16th, 1909, under the direction of Mr. Frank Lascelles.

"We want this pageant to be an education for old and young; and we hope that it will show, by its pictures of bygone life, and the influence which religion had upon that life, something of the struggles and the trials of those who fought for the faith," says the Bishop of London.

Rev. W. Marshall, F.S.A., is the vice-chairman of the Committee, 116, Victoria Street, S.W.

THE CHEAPENING OF LITERATURE.

HAVE FREE LIBRARIES A LOCAL INFLUENCE?

There are two important factors which have had an adverse influence during 1908 upon the trades of the makers and distributers of books. One of these has been the general condition of trade, not only in this, but in other countries—markets have been depressed, money has been scarce, and books, coming in the category of luxuries, have been amongst the articles which have suffered most.

The other element is that of cheapness. This influence appears to have permeated most departments of business, but **in the issue of books it would appear that the bottom round has been reached**, for in many of the series of books issued it is quite impossible that at lower prices there could be the slightest margin of profit for either the publisher or the bookseller.

To those who look beyond the trade of the bookseller, the question of cheapness must often arise: **Is the individual as well as the nation any more prosperous or happy for this cheapening of literature?** To the thoughtful there can be but one reply, and it could not be more wisely or happily expressed than in the words of Emerson, who wrote: "In the highest civilisation the book is still the highest delight. He who has once known its satisfaction is provided with a resource against calamity."

It would be a most interesting return, were it possible to obtain one, whether in the neighbourhood of free libraries there has been noticeable an advance in the thought or habits of the people of the immediate district—for it must be granted that if books have no direct influence, and time that might be better employed is wasted in reading that which is at once forgotten, then the noblest aspirations of many of our great writers will still have to wait or the consummation of their ideals.

No defence is here needed for **the habit of novel reading**, especially when it is used as a relief to tired brain or body. It is, however, gratifying to find that in the various issues of the different series of books most of our literary treasures occupy a place, and are by far the most popular.

Popular Classics.—To instance a few: Bacon's Essays are included in eighteen different libraries, Boswell's "Life of Johnson" in ten, Burns's Poems in eleven, Dante in nine, De Quincey's "Opium Eater" in ten, "Silas Marner" in ten, "Vicar of Wakefield" in fourteen, Holmes's "Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table" in ten, Keats's Poems in twelve, Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare" in eight, "Marcus Aurelius" in nine, Shakespeare's Works in fourteen, Sheridan's Plays in ten, Southey's "Life of Nelson" in ten, and in nearly all the various issues the more serious and literary volumes have by far the largest sales, thus showing that many of the readers of cheap literature require that which appeals to their intellect rather than their imagination.

In modern literature the two most popular of the cheap reprints has been "Queen Victoria's Letters" in three volumes at 6s., and John Morley's "Life of Gladstone" in two volumes at 5s., the sales of which show that the literature of biography and history appeals still to a very large public.

There is perhaps no more difficult task than that of defining **what is literature**, and whether a classic is made by the ability of the author or the taste of the public. Many books which have been handed down through past ages and are still accepted as literature, had they been subjected to the accepted rules as to what constitutes literature, would undoubtedly have been placed out of court. Only their age and tradition gives them place, while many books of recent times, written with all the culture and style which education can give, are kept without.

Sometimes it is the translator who brings an author into the magic circle, such as Fitzgerald with Omar Khayyam, or Pope with Homer; at others it is the information the books contain or the way it is conveyed. Mr. George Wyndham the other day described literature as "the voice of humanity." If that is so, there are at the present time many voices crying aloud for recognition.

Those who watch the daily output of the many cheap libraries now being issued from the Press must wonder what is their eventual destiny. Many of the sixpenny novels are read and thrown away, while the sevenpenny, now so popular, find a resting-place in the homes of the skilled mechanic in our industrial centres or the intelligent clerk or collector, who is not satisfied until he has made for himself a library for enlightenment and reference. There are, at the present time, **over fifty of these libraries containing books in every class of literature.**

In reviewing the books of the year it is difficult to single out any particular book as being the chief work, but from both a literary and an informing point of view the first position must be given to **Lord Cromer's "Modern Egypt,"** not only as the work of one who for many years has been practically the ruler of Egypt, but as a history of one of the most interesting experiments in government that this generation has seen.

In biography and recollections that of Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, both as a diplomatist as well as a politician, will be found most interesting; so also will the "Life and Correspondence of John T. Delane," a book which has been many years in preparation; and Mr. and Mrs. Pennell's "Life of James McNeill Whistler." The story of Miss Ellen Terry's Life is a work of great interest and fascination to every lover of this talented actress, and the "Reminiscences of Lady Randolph Churchill" will entertain the lover of travel and social gossip.

There appears no more fertile subject for the students of history than the **social condition of the French Courts during the reigns of Napoleon and Louis.** On this subject more books have been published during the year than upon any other. A few of the leading works are: Miss Hamil's "Famous French Salons," Mrs. Noel Williams's "The Women Bonapartes," the Comtesse de Boigne's Memoirs, "The Age of Louis XIV." in the Cambridge Modern History, "Dumourietz and the Defence of England Against Napoleon," and Mrs. Crawford's "The Wife of Lafayette."

The books which record the events that make history have been many and important. Among them are Mr. Bradley's "The Making of Canada," Sir Evelyn Wood's "Revolt in Hindustan," Miss Buttle's "The Queens of Egypt," Mr. H. L. George's "France in the Twentieth Century," Mr. Dean's "Trials of Five Queens" (which narrates the trials of Mary Queen of Scots, Anne Boleyn, Katharine of Arragon, Marie Antoinette, and Queen Caroline), Lady Bury's "Diary of a Lady-in-Waiting" (deals with the Court scandals of the unfortunate Caroline of Brunswick), Mr. Trowbridge's "Seven Splendid Sinners," Mr. Joseph Bennett's "Forty Years of Music," and the Bishop of Uganda's "Eighteen Years in Uganda" (which gives a record of his 2,000 miles wandering in tropical Africa).

It is always a serious problem to attempt a **survey of the value of fiction as an asset to the nation.** During the year most of our leading novelists have added one or more to the list of their published works, but how many of them will be known in a few years' time it is impossible to say. That no contribution has been made to our literature is a strong expression, but, judging from experience and from the opinions expressed by the critiques, this must be the verdict.

Although Miss Corelli and Mrs. Humphry Ward have written books which will maintain their reputations with their readers, yet they can only be considered of ephemeral value.

The writers whose works have been in greatest demand during the year will be found amongst the following: Mr. Max Pemberton, Mr. G. K. Chesterton, Mrs. Percy Dearmer, Baroness Orczy, Mr. E. F. Benson, Mrs. de la Pasture, Mr. Marion Crawford, Mr. Stanley Weyman, Mr. Phillips Oppenheim, Mr. Robert Hichens, Mr. Anthony Hope, Miss Beatrice Harraden, Miss Mary Johnston, "Frank Danby," Mr. Winston Churchill, and Mr. Eden Phillpotts; but authorship in the field of fiction is increasing year by year.

IRISH UNIVERSITIES ACT.

By the Irish Universities Act, passed in 1908, two new Irish universities will be founded at Dublin and Belfast within two years. This is to meet the objections of Roman Catholics, who declined to send their sons to Trinity College, Dublin. The Royal University and Queen's College, Belfast, are to be dissolved, but the buildings will be utilised for the new universities.

A new college is to be founded at Dublin, which with Queen's College, Cork, and Queen's College, Galway, are all to be constituent colleges of the new university.

There are to be no religious tests or preferences in connection with these universities. But professorships and lectureships in theology and divinity may be founded and maintained by private benefactors. No student is to be compelled to attend such theological teaching or religious instruction, and no professor or lecturer in theology is to be eligible for the General Board of Studies or any faculty other than the faculty of theology.

The Intermediate Education Board for Ireland and the County Councils have power [illegible]

Each university is to have a representative on the General Medical Council, and to hold qualifying examinations for registration under the Medical Acts.

A sum of money not exceeding £230,000 is to be granted by Parliament for the purposes of the new universities.

Mr. Birrell, who introduced this Bill, made a spirited defence against the charge of establishing denominational universities. He said when the Second Reading was on (and carried by a majority of 313):

"I have taken every step I could take in the endeavour that the universities in Dublin and Belfast shall be undenominational. Then I am **told that all** these provisions, all the protection in the clause, are not worth the paper they are written on; that whatever I do the universities must become denominational. Very well, if that be so, you must have a denominational university or none at all. I cannot do more than take every step open to a man to secure that these universities shall not be denominational.

"A '**denominational University' meant a university confined by law to the members of a particular denomination. Nothing of that sort happens here.** Anybody can go, and I am perfectly confident a great number of persons will go to both these new universities who do not belong either to the Presbyterian or to the Roman Catholic Church. We have done our best to secure that nobody shall be excluded from going, that every scholarship and every fellowship shall be open to everybody irrespective of religious opinions. We have done more than that, we have secured that the governing bodies of these universities for all time, after you have got rid of the first five years, shall be composed of elected members, elected by the graduates, elected by the professors.

"I challenge anybody, the most confirmed and determined Nonconformists in this House, to pursue this matter home, to push it to its final and ultima ratio; and he will find that **if he objects to a university simply because it is set up in a country where most of the people belong to one way of religious faith, and, as a consequence, that religious faith is freely represented on the governing body—if he objects to that, his objection is not to my scheme, but to the religion of these people."**

Sir Edward Carson, himself an Irish Protestant, declared "it is the duty of every Irishman, of whatever creed or politics, to wish God-speed to these universities, and to do his best in a spirit of noble generosity to make them a great success; **and I hope that the bringing of them into existence may be a step forward in the union of all classes and religions in Ireland for the progress of our country and its education."**

SECTION 8: COMMERCE AND AGRICULTURE.

THE RACE FOR TRADE.

Mr. Winston Churchill, having been asked what, as regards the United Kingdom, **the** United **States**, and Germany, were the **exports of manufactured goods**, the total **exports**, **and** the total **imports** for the years 1900 and 1907 respectively; what was the **increase in each of these classes** for each of these countries during the intervening time; what was **the estimated population** of each of these countries in the year 1907; and what, on that population basis, was the **increase per head for each of these classes** in each of these countries during that intervening time, furnished the following statistics. Mr. Churchill explains that the imports and exports per head of population in 1900 have been given on the basis of the estimated population of that year, and not, as suggested in the question, on the basis of the population in 1907.

		United Kingdom	United States.	
		Million £	Million £	Million £
Exports of manufactured articles (domestic produce)	1900	228·3	97·0	146·6
	1907	342·0	156·4	236·4
Increase in 1907 over 1900		113·7	59·4	89·8
Export[illegible] ar-ticles [illegible]stic produ[illegible] ..	1900	291·2	304·3	226·7
	1907	426·0	382·2	336·8
Increase in 1907 [illegible]r 1900		134·8	77·9	110·1
Imports of all articles (for home consumption) ..	1900	459·9	168·3	283·5
	1907	553·9	243·4	430·0
Increase in 1907 over 1900		94·0	75·1	146·5
Estimated population	1900	41,155,000	76,975,000	56,269,000
	[illegible]	44,099,000	86,617,000	62,332,000

		United Kingdom.			United States.			Germany.		
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Exports of manufactured articles (domestic produce) per head	1900	5	10	11	1	5	2	2	12	1
	1907	7	15	1	1	16	1	3	15	10
Increase in 1907 over 1900		2	4	2	0	10	11	1	3	9
Exports of all articles (domestic produce) per head	1900	7	1	6	3	19	1	4	[illegible]	7
	19	9	13	2	4	8	3	5	8	1
Increase of 1907 over 1900		2	11	8	0	9	2			
Imports of all articles (for home consumption) per head	1900	11	3	6	2	3	9			
	1907	12	11	2	2	16	2	6	18	[illegible]
Increase in 1907 over 1900		1	7	8	0	12	6	1	17	3

DECREASED TRADE.

The Board of Trade publishes these figures, which show the course of trade in five countries during the first three-quarters of 1908.

Imports for nine months, ended September, in thousands of £:

	1906.	1907.	1908.
Germany ..	284,175 ..	320,742 ..	300,651
Belgium ..	95,506 ..	107,557 ..	100,062
France	164,278 ..	182,610 ..	179,140
U. States ..	197,556 ..	230,848 ..	166,285
U. Kingdom:	380,093 ..	402,886 ..	378,084

Exports (domestic) for nine months, ended September, in thousands of £:

	1906.	1907.	1908.
Germany ..	217,618 ..	240,437 ..	245,873
Belgium ..	75,125 ..	78,209 ..	75,958
France ..	153,101 ..	165,260 ..	155,335
U. States ..	253,861 ..	272,828 ..	252,587
U. Kingdom	278,054 ..	319,281 ..	285,663

In every country there are similar decreases in imports and exports.

NATIONAL TRADE PER HEAD.

Here is a table which shows **how Germany, France, the United States, and the United Kingdom stand when their imports and exports in gross and per head are compared.** Mr. Lloyd-George is responsible for these figures (March 19th, 1908). The values of imports and exports stated in the German and French official accounts are for the most part computed on the basis of the ascertained average prices of 1906.

Items.	Germany.	France.	United States.	United Kingdom.
	£	£	£	£
Imports for home consumption	422,706,000	241,906,000	296,519,000	553,932,000
Exports of domestic produce..	337,722,000	221,681,000	394,859,000	426,205,000
Total of above	760,428,000	463,587,000	691,378,000	980,137,000
Estimated population	62,156,000	39,275,000	85,817,000	44,100,000
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Imports for home consumption per head	6 16 0	6 3 2	3 9 1	12 11 3
Exports of domestic produce..	5 8 8	5 12 11	4 12 0	9 13 3
Total of above	12 4 8	11 16 1	8 1 1	22 4 6

BRITISH TRADE AT A GLANCE.

TRADE PER HEAD: OUR CUSTOMERS.

Our total imports and exports in the year 1907 was of the value of £1,163,785,109. This does not represent our total trade, for it does **not include our Home Trade**, for which the census of production (page 240) will give such figures.

Our exports, in 1907, amounted **to** £645,807,942, and **our imports** to £426,035,082. Here is the table for ten years' trade, showing imports, exports, and totals, and the proportion per head for each item:

Years.	Total Imports.		Exports.				Total of Imports and Exports.	
	Total Value (in thousands of £).	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.	Of United Kingdom Produce. Total Value (in thousands of £).	Of United Kingdom Produce. Proportion per Head of Populat'n of United Kingdom.	Of Foreign and Colonial Produce (in thousands of £).	Total Exports (in thousands of £).	Total Value (in thousands of £).	Proportion per Head of Population of United Kingdom.
		£ s. d.		£ s. d.				£ s. d.
1898	470,544	11 13 1	233,359	5 15 7	60,654	294,013	764,558	18 18 8
1899	485,035	11 17 11	264,492	6 9 9	65,042	329,534	814,570	19 19 7
1900	523,075	12 14 3	291,191	7 1 6	63,181	354,373	877,448	21 6 5
1901	521,990	12 11 3	280,022	6 14 9	67,841	347,864	869,854	20 18 8
1902	528,391	12 11 10	283,423	6 15 1	65,814	349,238	877,630	20 18 4
1903	542,600	12 16 1	290,800	6 17 3	69,573	360,373	902,973	21 6 8
1904	551,038	12 17 6	300,711	7 0 6	70,304	371,015	922,053	21 10 11
1905	565,019	13 1 5	329,816	7 12 7	77,779	407,596	972,616	22 10 1
1906	607,888	13 18 5	375,575	8 12 0	85,102	460,677	1,068,566	24 9 6
1907	645,807	14 12 11	426,035	9 13 3	91,942	517,977	1,163,785	26 7 10

OUR CHIEF CUSTOMERS.
Here are the figures of our Imports and Exports to and from some of the chief foreign countries for the years 1901 to 1907.

In thousands of £.

			1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
Russia	Imports	21,903	25,673	30,932	31,402	33,366	30,051	31,423
	Exports	14,210	13,892	16,163	15,285	14,884	15,942	19,063
Germany	Imports	32,207	33,633	34,533	33,944	35,799	38,021	38,782
	Exports	34,221	33,094	34,516	36,427	42,742	48,312	56,729
Netherlands	Imports	32,871	34,842	34,973	34,689	35,481	36,653	36,831
	Exports	13,744	13,071	14,040	12,909	14,516	16,838	19,005
Belgium	Imports	24,666	26,538	27,792	27,536	27,751	29,033	28,291
	Exports	12,624	12,619	12,746	13,474	14,818	16,753	19,354
France	Imports	51,213	50,642	49,347	51,107	53,072	53,871	52,832
	Exports	23,700	22,275	23,146	21,702	23,232	28,784	33,507
Italy	Imports	3,383	3,582	3,441	3,324	3,324	3,612	3,850
	Exports	8,293	8,093	8,472	9,222	9,787	12,481	15,252
Austria-Hungary	Imports	1,101	1,339	2,543	1,817	1,488	1,212	1,088
	Exports	2,838	2,511	2,416	2,567	2,603	3,248	5,407
Turkey	Imports	5,727	6,115	5,868	5,754	5,491	6,075	6,005
	Exports	7,117	6,336	5,777	7,586	6,979	8,423	7,809
Egypt	Imports	11,905	13,764	12,983	14,302	14,976	16,858	22,225
	Exports	6,418	6,268	6,559	8,431	8,069	9,152	10,231
Morocco	Imports	537	700	559	505	467	356	538
	Exports	911	1,042	889	930	739	904	935
Congo Free State	Imports	18	15	21	17	16	29	71
	Exports	138	108	111	123	136	142	115
Persia	Imports	200	210	175	278	151	226	390
	Exports	583	384	448	455	488	401	698
China	Imports	2,116	2,407	2,679	2,761	2,340	3,314	3,471
	Exports	6,827	7,188	6,798	8,889	13,298	12,306	12,137
Japan	Imports	1,830	1,898	2,276	2,349	1,860	2,954	3,241
	Exports	8,209	5,276	4,717	5,043	9,796	13,115	12,279
United States	Imports	141,015	126,961	122,112	119,227	115,573	131,101	133,683
	Exports	37,651	43,081	41,605	39,272	47,282	53,240	58,052
Total of Foreign Countries.	Imports	416,305	421,474	428,929	431,020	437,151	465,723	488,670
	Exports	234,656	231,659	240,889	250,231	284,883	330,030	370,523

THE GROWTH OF OUR TRADE.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT PRICES OF 1900.

To enable fair comparisons to be made between the figures of our trade in 1900 and in recent years the Board of Trade now annually issues a return (Cd. 4115) in which the imports and exports of the years since 1900 are given at the prices the articles [illegible] at in 1900.

As Mr. A. Wilson Fox, of the Board of Trade, explains, this return "eliminates as far as possible the effect of the fluctuation of prices, and so secures a basis of closer comparison between the volume of Imports and Exports in each year." The point is that a reduction of price may reduce the total value of certain goods, but does not necessarily decrease their bulk.

Mr. Wilson Fox says: "When we eliminate the effect of price variations—

"Imports are seen to have increased in volume by 15 per cent. in seven years;

"Exports of the Produce and Manufactures of the United Kingdom by 43 per cent., and

"Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise by 25 per cent.

"The declared values have increased in the same period by 23 per cent., 46 per cent., and 44 per cent. respectively."

RESULTS OF THE CALCULATION.

The final results of the Board of Trade calculation is summarised as follows:

Year.	Imports.		Exports of Produce and Manufactures of the United Kingdom.		Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	
	Values as declared each year.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900.	Values as declared.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900.	Values as declared.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1900 ..	[illegible],075,[illegible]	[illegible],075,000	291,192,000	291,192,000	63,182,000	63,182,000
1901 ..	521,990,[illegible]	[illegible]8,932,[illegible]	280,022,000	294,041,000	67,842,000	69,028,000
1902 ..	528,391,[illegible]	[illegible]	283,424,000	312,159,000	65,815,000	67,617,000
1903 ..	542,600,[illegible]	[illegible]	290,800,000	320,504,000	69,574,000	69,946,000
1904 ..	551,0[illegible],000	[illegible],728,000	300,711,000	327,449,000	70,301,000	69,3[illegible]0,000
1905 ..	565,020,000	57[illegible],762,000	329,817,000	[illegible],890,000	77,780,000	74,761,000
1906 ..	607,888,000	588,806,000	375,575,000	386,917,000	85,102,000	75,319,000
1907 ..	645,904,000	599,592,000	426,205,000	416,973,000	91,972,000	79,182,000

"The above figures," says Mr. Fox, "very clearly indicate that the effect of the general rise in prices which prevailed in 1906 was continued in 1907; the increase in the estimated values at the prices of 1900 being in all three branches of trade less than the increase in declared values, and the average values of imports, exports, and re-exports alike being greater than in 1900 or any subsequent year.

"**Even allowing for changes of price, however, the volume of our import and export trade in 1907 was substantially greater than in 1906,** and as regards our export trade, nearly every important group of manufactures shows an increased volume of export in 1907.

"**During the seven years the volume of imports has increased from 523 to 600 millions,** that of the exports of United Kingdom produce and manufactures from 291 to 417 millions, and that of the re-exports from 63 to nearly 79 millions."

Increases per cent.—It may be convenient to express the figures given in the above table as percentages of the figures for 1900, and this is done in the following statement, where the figure 100 represents the values of imports and of exports in 1900:

Year.	Imports.		Exports of Produce and Manufactures of the United Kingdom.		Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	
	Values as declared.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900.	Values as declared.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900.	Values as declared.	Estimated Values at prices of 1900
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1900	100	100	100	100	100	100
1901	100	103	96	101	107	109
1902	101	105	97	107	104	107
1903	104	107	100	110	110	111
1904	105	108	103	112	111	110
1905	108	110	113	121	123	118
1906	116	112	129	133	135	119
1907	123	115	146	143	144	125

BRITISH IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1903-[illegible]

Summary of the Value of the Imports of Merchandise from Foreign [illegible] and British Possessions.

Main Divisions.	1903. From Foreign Countries.	1903. From British Possess'ns	1903. Total	1904. From Foreign Countries	1904. From British Possess'ns	1904. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	180,856,914	50,618,215	231,475,[illegible]	174,199,442	56,4[illegible]	230,644,985
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	124,996,796	48,513,241	173,519,037	133,750,874	48,461,939	182,212,813
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	121,312,245	14,119,850	135,432,095	121,393,409	14,577,851	135,971,260
Miscell. & unclassified (incl. Parcel Post)	1,763,542	419,483	2,183,025	1,676,497	533,073	2,209,570
Total . . .	428,929,497	113,670,792	542,600,289	431,020,222	120,018,406	551,[illegible],628

Main Divisions.	1905. From Foreign Countries	1905. From British Possess'ns	1905. Total	1906. From Foreign Countries	1906. From British Possess'ns	1906. Total	1907. From Foreign Countries	1907. From British Possess'ns	1907. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	172,694,802	59,264,778	231,2[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible] 596
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	135,974,948	52,131,671	188,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	71,[illegible]	241,[illegible],172
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	127,405,20[illegible]	15,[illegible],797	142,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]4,558,991
Miscell. & unclassified (incl. Parcel Post)	1,676,243	640,[illegible]	2,316,576	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Total . . .	437,151,191	127,868,726	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible],897,842

Summary of Exports of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.

Main Divisions.	1903. To Foreign Countries	1903. To British Possess'ns	1903. Total	1904. To Foreign Countries	1904. To British Possess'ns	1904. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	7,850,596	8,462,919	16,313,515	8,759,568	8,104,882	16,864,450
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	33,142,221	2,995,210	36,137,431	32,787,153	3,443,559	36,230,712
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	136,239,532	97,853,414	234,092,946	144,920,900	98,416,043	243,336,943
Miscell. & unclassified (incl. Parcel Post)	2,420,895	1,835,321	4,256,216	2,305,549	1,973,386	4,278,935
Total . . .	179,653,244	111,146,864	290,800,108	188,773,170	111,937,870	300,711,040

Main Divisions.	1905. To Foreign Countries	1905. To British Possess'ns	1905. Total	1906. To Foreign Countries	1906. To British Possess'ns	1906. Total	1907. To Foreign Countries	1907. To British Possess'ns	1907. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	11,063,572	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible],701,863	9,[illegible],785	22,729 648
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	33,551,497	[illegible]	[illegible]	40,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible],874,037	3,[illegible],044	[illegible]
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	168,868,3[illegible]	100,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	219,595,876	[illegible]	342 025,273
Miscell. & unclassified (incl. Parcel Post)	2,895,[illegible]	[illegible]	5,031,8[illegible]	3,414,4[illegible]	2,249,78[illegible]	5,664 10[illegible]	3,726,651	2,550,580	6,277,081
Total . . .	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	288,[illegible]	137,336,756	[illegible],035,083

Summary of Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.

Main Divisions.	1903. To Foreign Countries	1903. To British Possess'ns	1903. Total	1904. To Foreign Countries	1904. To British Possess'ns	1904. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	7,485,781	2,752,403	10,238,184	8,255,839	2,625,281	10,881,120
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	39,269,508	1,104,461	40,373,969	38,045,787	1,189,574	39,235,361
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	14,384,556	4,455,615	18,840,171	15,067,040	5,002,498	20,069,538
Miscell. & unclassified	96,394	24,846	121,240	89,989	28,273	118,262
Total . . .	61,236,239	8,337,325	69,573,564	61,458,655	8,845,626	70,304,281

Main Divisions.	1905. To Foreign Countries	1905. To British Possess'ns	1905. Total	1906. To Foreign Countries	1906. To British Possess'ns	1906. Total	1907. To Foreign Countries	1907. To British Possess'ns	1907. Total
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Food, drink & tobacco	[illegible],188,604	2,5[illegible]	12,[illegible]	9,48[illegible]	2,560,[illegible]	12,048,710	9,562,900	2,606,505	12,169,405
Raw matrls. & artcls. mainly unmanufact.	42,168,[illegible]	1,[illegible]	[illegible]	45,[illegible]	1,[illegible]	47 416,927	51,861,754	1,299,054	53,160,808
Articles wholly or mainly manufact.	16,730,088	5,[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	5,409,748	25,446,176	20,220,457	6,204,249	26,424,706
Miscell. & unclassified	118,[illegible]	14,[illegible]	1[illegible]	181,181	9,486	[illegible]90,667	179,648	7,517	187,165
Total . . .	68,504,804	9,275,1[illegible]	77,779,912	75,796,707	9,306,773	85,103,480	81,824,759	10,117,325	91,942,084

THE INTEREST ON THE SOIL.

£6,300,000 RENT ON 27,400,000 ACRES.

A very important investigation has been made by Mr. R. J. Thompson into the rent of agricultural land in England and Wales during the nineteenth century. He made known the results of the investigations to the Royal Statistical Society.

Briefly, his conclusion is "that the average rent of land in England and Wales, after deducting interest on capital, is about 4s. 6d. an acre—that is to say, that the net surplus remaining above the whole cost of production on 27,400,000 acres (being the area of cultivated land in England and Wales) is about £6,300,000.

"If," says Mr. Thompson, "we assume that the capital invested in the land in improvements requiring renewal and repairs, such as buildings, fences, gates, drainage, roads, &c., amounts on the average to £12 per acre, and that the average gross rent at the present time is £1 per acre, the gross return is 8⅓ per cent. Deducting 35 per cent. from the gross rent for repairs and upkeep, the net return on the capital invested in buildings, &c., is £5 8s. 4d. per cent. Or it may be put in this way:

	Per acre. £ s. d.
Gross rent	1 0 0
Repairs, management and outgoings of all kinds, and sinking fund for new buildings, drainage, fencing, at 35 per cent. of the gross rent	0 7 0
Interest on £12 capital invested in permanent improvements at 3½ per cent.	0 8 5
Balance representing rent of the land itself—i.e., the economic rent	0 4 7

"It will, of course, be understood that in speaking of the capital invested in the land I am referring solely to the average sum which the provision of drainage, fencing, gates, roads, and buildings would cost to supply. The capital invested in land when purchasing it represents all this, and also a payment for the "economic rent" which it may be expected to produce, as well as in many cases a payment for amenities appertaining to its possession.

"This economic rent (of £6,300,000) may be regarded as the net return which accrued to the nation at the end of the nineteenth century from the cultivation of the soil through its individual owners, and it is questionable whether it was not a lower figure than at any time in the previous hundred years, as the gross rent in 1815-30, which probably averaged about 20s. per acre, would undoubtedly have been subject to smaller deductions for repairs and interest than is the case with the gross rent in 1900. In short, the progress of agricultural knowledge, the advance of science, the development of the country by road and rail, the increase in the population, the proximity of markets and the better equipment of farms, have not resulted, in the face of reduced prices, in obtaining as great a surplus as was got some seventy or eighty years earlier.

"As a nation, the smaller return from the soil is compensated for by the cheapness of some of the principal articles of food, but the fact that the progress and improvement of agriculture in the past century have failed to increase the economic value of land cannot be regarded as satisfactory. It suggests that those changes which are no doubt slowly taking place in our agricultural system must go much further before the full return to be expected from land so favourably situated as that of England can be obtained.

"At the beginning of the nineteenth century, when 'the agriculture of the Kingdom was the first of all its concerns, the foundation of all its prosperity,' the growth in the population demanded the increased cultivation of corn to feed the people, and the formation of large farms was wisely urged as enabling a maximum of production at a minimum cost.

"The opening of the twentieth century, however, finds an enormously increased population dependent for the greater proportion of its corn and meal on regions beyond the seas, and the arguments which encouraged the large farm to the disadvantage of the medium and small holding have no longer the same weight.

"To split up a large farm is not, however, a change which a landowner can lightly undertake. New buildings, fences, and roads may be necessary, and without the prospect of a good return the necessary money is not likely to be forthcoming.

"But it is in a return to the conditions of earlier times, to a more even distribution of the land in a larger number of holdings, that we may perhaps anticipate more profitable results from the utilisation of the soil. The medium farm, with a reasonable proportion of still smaller holdings, favours and encourages the growth of those products which can be produced as cheaply and as well in this country as abroad. In milk, dairy produce, eggs, pigs, calves, poultry, vegetables, and fruit, the farmers of this country are at no disadvantage as regards climate or soil compared with their principal competitors, while they have the advantage of nearness to markets; and it is probably true that a greater proportion of the soil of Great Britain could be advantageously devoted to these products than is the case at present, without interfering with large farms which, from soil or situation, are especially suitable to the growth of grain, beef, mutton, or wool."

At the beginning of his paper, Mr. Thompson pointed out that "few statistics exist to enable us to have a larger view of the general rise and fall in agricultural rents than is afforded by the casual records of individual estates. There is, in fact, but one general statement referring to the country at large, viz., the Inland Revenue return of the gross income derived from the ownership of lands."

To get his figures Mr. Thompson made a very valuable original research in the accounts of sixteen private estates, and his conclusions are based on tables showing the rent actually received from 70,000 acres from 1801 to 1900, 120,000 acres from 1861 to 1900, and 400,000 acres from 1872 to 1900.

"So far as general agreement is shown, the returns," Mr. Thompson thinks, "may be regarded as typical of the rise and fall in rents in England generally."

HOW TO EDUCATE FARMERS.

AN ENGLISH INQUIRY AND ITS RESULTS.

How can we educate farmers so that they may get the most out of their land? How can the achievements of agricultural science be made known to the man who has need of it? These are the matters at the heart of to-day's agricultural problems.

Lord Carrington in 1907 appointed a committee, of which Lord Reay was chairman, "to inquire as to the provision which has now been made for affording scientific and technical instruction in agriculture in England and Wales, and to report whether, in view of the practical results which have already been obtained, the existing facilities for the purpose are satisfactory and sufficient, and, if not, in what manner they may with advantage be modified or extended."

The report was issued in 1908 (price 9d.).

These are some of the chief conclusions and recommendations:

In developing the existing facilities, attention should be first given to securing **a highly qualified staff.** Further developments in agricultural education will be difficult until a greater supply of well-qualified teachers is available. This is a subject which demands the serious consideration of the Board of Agriculture. **The facilites for agricultural instruction of a lower grade are unorganised, unsystematic, and wholly inadequate.**

In view of the State's limited expenditure on agricultural education and of the short time for which the institutions have been at work, the practical results have been satisfactory. **The attitude of farmers,** which was formerly one of indifference, has undergone a marked change: keen interest is now taken in the work of many of the institutions; and a number of improvements in farm practice can be directly traced to their influence.

The type of institution which appears to be exceptionally adapted to the needs of this country is the Winter Agricultural School. This school should aim at providing courses of study, during the winter months, for lads of from seventeen to twenty, who have already gained some practical acquaintance with agriculture or horticulture. In the course of the next ten years from fifty to sixty of these schools should be provided in England and Wales.

As a means of reaching and influencing those engaged in farming or gardening **the itinerant instructor is of great importance.** In every county there should be instructors in agriculture and horticulture, and systematic instruction should also be provided in farm hygiene, dairying, poultry-keeping, farriery and certain manual processes, as well as in the methods of co-operative production and distribution.

In order to secure and to maintain efficiency **the instructors selected must have had practical experience,** and must keep up a close association with practical work.

It is desirable that universities and colleges in receipt of aid from the Board of Agriculture should provide **courses of instruction in subjects bearing upon agriculture and horticulture for elementary and secondary school teachers.**

The courses of instruction in forestry now offered by certain agricultural colleges are of much value, and should be encouraged. As opportunity offers, similar courses should be established by other institutions

At institutions providing **instruction in dairying** more attention should be given to the breeding and rearing of dairy cattle, the keeping of full milk records, the production and sanitary distribution of milk, and to possible improvements in methods of milking.

An increase in the number of **fruit stations and of demonstration plots** for other horticultural purposes is desirable. **The Board of Agriculture should collate the results of the experiments** conducted throughout the country.

The **advantages offered by scholarships** have not been fully utilised. Greater efforts should be made to provide scholarships in connection with well-arranged courses of study, and to secure a good competition for the scholarships offered. The Board of Agriculture should provide or encourage the provision of scholarships for post-graduate research, and also travelling fellowships for teachers.

With regard to **the organisation of agricultural instruction** the Committee are of opinion: That, so far as the national authority is concerned, the duty of promoting and controlling agricultural education should remain vested in the Board of Agriculture. That, so far as control by local authorities is concerned, the organisation and supervision of agricultural instruction should always be entrusted either to a special committee, or to a sub-committee reporting direct to the education committee of the county council, and consisting principally of agriculturists and of representatives of the college to which the county may be affiliated.

The funds at present available for agricultural education are wholly inadequate, and considerably increased funds should be provided, the main source of which must be the National Exchequer.

The Committee are convinced that agricultural education is of such vital importance to the United Kingdom that **no effort should be spared in making the provision for it as full and complete as possible.**

The ultimate aim of instruction in agriculture is to improve and to increase agricultural produce, and there is no doubt but that by a general adoption of scientific methods an important development could be effected in every branch of agriculture and in the various rural industries subsidiary to it. By this means, without diminishing the supply of meat and cereals grown in the country, **a large proportion of the butter and cheese, the poultry, the fruit and vegetables (to say nothing of the timber) now imported from abroad could be remuneratively produced at home.**

The possibility of **additional employment** as a result of improved education ought not to be overlooked. Additional employment would enable a larger population to find a living upon the land. This consideration is of high moment to the maintenance of the **physical standard of the race,** for the rural population has not only to replenish its own numbers, but, as a town-bred population rapidly deteriorates, to supply the ever-increasing demands of our great cities for healthy men and women workers.

HOW TO GET A SMALL HOLDING.

FARMS OF ONE TO FIFTY ACRES.

Here, in the briefest possible way, is set out how to get a Small Holding or an Allotment, as provided by the Small Holdings and Allotments Act which is now in force:

The memorandum printed below on "How to obtain an Allotment or Small Holding," which has been published as a leaflet, is intended to explain for the guidance of applicants the conditions under which land can be acquired from local authorities.

The object of this leaflet is to give those who desire to secure an allotment or a small holding from the Local Authority some information as to what they should do in order to obtain land, and as to the conditions under which land can be acquired. The leaflet has nothing to do with small holdings or allotments provided by private landowners, but is concerned only with those that can be provided by Local Authorities under the Small Holdings and Allotment Acts.

ALLOTMENTS.

Definition and Method of Application.—An allotment may be of any size up to **5 acres.**

Applicants in rural parishes should write to the Clerk of the Parish Council, or to the Chairman of the Parish Meeting, if there is no Parish Council, and applicants in urban districts should write to the Clerk of the Urban District Council or the Town Clerk, as the case may be. They should state the amount of land required and whether arable or grass, and if any particular piece of land is desired it should be mentioned.

It does not follow that the Council will be able to obtain this particular land, but the information furnished will be of use to the Council by enabling them to meet the wishes of the applicants as far as possible.

Where rules have been made by a Council as to the manner in which applications are to be made, the rules should be carefully observed.

Tenure.—Allotments cannot be sold to applicants, but may only be let. No allotment may be sublet. Allotment tenants are entitled, on quitting their allotments, to compensation for unexhausted improvements under the Agricultural Holdings Acts, or under the Allotments and Cottage Gardens Compensation Act, 1887.

Powers and Duties of Local Authorities.—Allotment authorities can let land only to members of the labouring population resident in their parish, district, or borough. Women, as well as men, are eligible as tenants of allotments. The term "labouring population" may be taken to include all those persons whose main occupation involves manual labour, and would embrace most persons to whom an allotment would be useful. But if an applicant does not belong to the labouring population, and requires land of more than one acre in extent, he can apply to the County Council for the land under the Small Holdings Acts. Allotment authorities can provide allotments up to five acres in size, but they are not obliged to provide allotments of more than one acre. If an applicant desires more than one acre, and the allotment authority declines to take action, he should apply to the County Council for a small holding under the Small Holdings Acts.

If a Parish Council or Parish Meeting, or a District Council (not being a Borough Council) fail to carry out their obligation to satisfy the demand for allotments in their district, the County Council are empowered to provide allotments up to one acre at the expense of the defaulting authority, and the Council can deal with applications for over an acre under the Small Holdings Acts. If the County Council fail to act, the matter may be referred to the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries.

Acquisition of Land by Local Authorities.—A local authority can purchase or hire land for allotments either within or outside the parish, district, or borough, and can adapt such land for the purpose. They are also empowered to erect a dwelling house for occupation with any allotment of one acre and upwards. If a Borough or District Council cannot acquire land voluntarily, they can purchase or rent land compulsorily, subject to certain restrictions, one of which is that no part of any holding of fifty acres or less can be compulsorily acquired. The purchase money or rent in such circumstances will be fixed by an independent arbitrator or valuer. In the case of a Parish Council or Parish Meeting being unable to obtain land for allotments by agreement with the landowners, the Council or Meeting can represent the case to the County Council, who may thereupon proceed to acquire land compulsorily on behalf of the Parish Council or Parish Meeting.

Rent.—The rents to be charged to allotment holders will be fixed at sums sufficient to cover the expenses incurred in providing the allotment, such as the purchase money or rent paid by the local authority for the land, the cost of adaptation, etc., and the expenses of management. If a house is erected on the allotment additional rent will be charged to cover the cost. A Council is entitled to require the payment of one quarter's rent in advance.

SMALL HOLDINGS.

Definition and Method of Application.—A "small holding," for the purposes of the Small Holdings Acts, means an agricultural holding which is more than one acre and not more than fifty acres in extent. It may, however, exceed fifty acres, provided the annual value for the purpose of income tax is not more than £50.

Applications for small holdings should be made to the Clerk of the County Council, or in the case of residents in a County Borough, to the Town Clerk.

Persons Eligible as Applicants.—There is no restriction in the Small Holdings Acts as to the class or sex of persons that may apply for small holdings, except that they must "themselves cultivate the holding." This expression is not to be understood in a narrow sense. The Acts define "cultivation" to mean the use of the land for any purpose of husbandry, including the keeping or breeding of live stock, poultry, or bees, or the growth of fruit,

vegetables, and the like. Applicants will be expected to satisfy the Council that they have sufficient experience and means to work a small holding with the prospect of success. There is no provision in the Acts for the advance of money out of public funds to individuals taking up small holdings.

Acquisition of Land.—Councils can purchase or hire land for small holdings either in or outside the county or borough. If they are unable to obtain land by agreement, they can, with the sanction of the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, acquire land compulsorily, subject to the restrictions referred to in the case of allotments.

Councils have certain powers of adapting land for the purpose of small holdings, including the power to erect dwelling houses and other buildings.

Sale or Letting of Small Holdings.—Land that has been bought by a Council by agreement can either be sold or let to a small holder; but land taken on lease, or acquired compulsorily, can only be let.

Rent.—The rent to be paid by a small holder will be fixed by the Council at a sum not less than is sufficient to cover the rent or the interest on the purchase money paid by the Council, with the addition of a fair proportion of the cost of adapting the land for small holdings, and a sum to cover management and other expenses.

Terms of Purchase.—The terms upon which a small holding may be purchased are as follows:—

At least one-fifth of the purchase money, including the cost of adaptation, must be paid down. One-fourth may be secured by a perpetual rentcharge, and the payment of the remainder of the purchase-money, together with the interest, will be made in half-yearly instalments, which may be spread over a period not exceeding fifty years.

Every small holding sold by the County Council will, for twenty years, and thereafter until the whole of the purchase-money is paid, remain subject to certain conditions drawn up to ensure that the holding shall not be diverted from the purposes of agriculture.

Assistance to Existing Small Holders to Buy their Holdings.—If the tenant of a small holding under a private landlord agrees with him for the purchase of the holding, the County Council may advance not more than four-fifths of the purchase-money. The money is repayable to the County Council upon the same terms as in the case of a small holding sold by the Council, and the holding will become subject to the same conditions.

Lettings to Associations.—Councils may, with the consent of the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, let land for the purposes of small holdings or allotments to associations.

Persons desiring to form such an association, and to acquire land from a Council for the purpose of sub-letting it in small holdings or allotments to the members of the association or others, should communicate with the Secretary of the Agricultural Organisation Society, Dacre House, Dacre Street, Westminster, S.W., with a view to their adopting the necessary rules and becoming registered societies.

The Board of Agriculture has just granted to the Agricultural Organisation Society £1,200 a year for three years so long as the work of the society is confined to organisation and auditing. **By the term organisation is to** be understood the advocacy of the adoption of co-operative methods by the agricultural classes for their benefit; the giving of advice and instruction as to the application of the principles of co-operation to industries for the betterment of the rural population; the giving of advice and assistance to co-operative societies in the conduct of their affairs.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE.

Up to the end of June, 1908, over 19,000 persons had applied for small holdings of a total acreage of over 300,000 acres.

The Small Holdings Commissioners report that "a large proportion of the applicants appear to be thoroughly suitable men, and the amount of capital they possess is greatly in excess of what was generally anticipated. Only in a very small percentage of cases is there any desire to purchase, and in the majority of cases the applicants do not ask for houses or buildings. This is probably due to the fact that most of them are men who are already resident in the country and who desire land within reach of their present homes.

"**The extent to which the original number of applications has been reduced after investigation varies in different parts of the country.** In the Isle of Wight practically the whole of the applicants are regarded as being likely to prove suitable tenants. In Cambridgeshire the applications of 865 persons for 8,203 acres were investigated, and the sub-committees have approved 673 applications for 5,080 acres. In some counties, on the other hand, mainly owing to the adoption of a somewhat narrow view as to the description of person who is entitled to take advantage of the Act, the sub-committees have ruled out a number of applications from village tradesmen, carriers, &c., who desired land as an adjunct to their present employment. **The Board thought it desirable, therefore, to issue a circular pointing out that the Act did not justify the adoption of such a course, and they have requested the councils concerned to reconsider such applications if they had been rejected on inadequate grounds.**

"Up to the end of June the Board had received seventeen schemes for the provision of small holdings, thirteen of which had been approved. These seventeen schemes cover an area of 1,406 acres, and, in addition, schemes relating to 647 acres have been provisionally approved. It thus appears that rather over 2,000 acres of land have already been acquired under the recent Act, and, in addition, negotiations are in progress in many other counties."

OUR FACTORIES.

There were 1,026,378 people employed in our factories in 1904, thus:

Cotton factories	523,030
Wool, worsted, &c.	261,801
Flax, jute, &c.	147,968
Silk	29,911
Hosiery	36,336
Lace	18,588
Elastic, &c.	8,744

AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATION.

WHAT IT HAS DONE AND IS DOING IN IRELAND.

Hardly any popular movement in Ireland has attracted more attention in recent years than the rapidly growing movement for the organisation of farmers in co-operative associations. Ireland is the country of leagues.

The individual has no chance of finding followers in his individualism unless he forms an association to push it. Elsewhere literary propaganda would have its effect. Literary propaganda has no effect in Ireland at all.

The co-operative movement in Ireland was started by Sir Horace Plunkett, who reversed the custom usual in other countries by doing his work first and writing its propaganda literature in later years as an afterthought. He returned from America in 1889, and began a solitary campaign among the Irish farmers. He has left it on record that he addressed fifty meetings before he started his first co-operative dairy society.

When he could point to one successful association the hardest part of his work was over, for the conservative farmer always asks if there is anything of the kind working elsewhere, and if there is nothing to point to, the farmer refuses to lead a forlorn hope. The proud consciousness of being in the foremost files of time is no lure to his spirit.

Sir Horace Plunkett soon attracted helpers. There were a few people in Ireland at that time who were sick of the class war, and who were not very ardent politicians, and who saw clearly that whether the Irish farmer owned his land or paid rent for it, whether Ireland governed itself or was governed, **a complete revolution would have to be made in rural business methods.**

The best known of these first helpers who are still active supporters of the work were Lord Monteagle, Colonel Everard, the Rev. Thomas Finlay, and Mr. R. A. Anderson, who, in 1894, became the Secretary of the Irish Agricultural Organisation Society, which was formed in that year to carry on the work of organising the farmers for business purposes, which had by that time grown too heavy for one volunteer to cope with. The name of the organising body proved too long for practical purposes in a world so slow even as the rural world, and it was soon referred to as the "I.A.O.S."; and under this title it is now everywhere as well known in Ireland as the United Irish League or the Gaelic League.

The I.A.O.S. has two classes of members— society members and individual members—the latter class composed of people who sympathise with its work and pay an annual subscription. The society members elect three-quarters of the committee of management, and practically control its policy. **The objects of the I.A.O.S. are to organise farmers into co-operative associations wherever the conditions of their industry are such that production could be increased or an economy be effected by exchanging individual action for associated effort in production, sale or purchase.**

The movement has grown like the proverbial mustard-tree from the small seed sown in 1889, when the first society was formed, and now **its ramifications** extend into every county in Ireland. **The societies, at the beginning of** October, 1908, numbered **961**; of these **302** were **dairy societies, 56** were unregistered auxiliary creameries, **175** were **agricultural societies, 273** were **credit associations, 34** were **poultry societies, 15** were flax, and **103** were **home industries** or for **miscellaneous purposes.** There were also three federations.

The societies which bulk largest in membership and trade are **the co-operative dairy societies.** A revolution was effected in butter-making by the introduction, about a quarter of a century ago, of the steam separator, which separates the cream from the milk by centrifugal action. Under the old system of home butter-making it took, on an average, three gallons of milk to make a pound of butter. By employing the steam separator, with its cleaner skimming, two and a half gallons or less sufficed.

The use of the new invention necessitated the entrance of the capitalist, or else a large combination of the farmers who could afford to erect buildings and purchase the expensive plant required. It was found by experience when the private capitalist owned the creamery that he took care to reserve the largest portion of the profits for himself, and after a little time when the farmers, seduced by initial good prices had dropped their old methods, lost their local markets, when their churns were rotting or growing geraniums in the garden, they were at the mercy of the creamery proprietor, who paid for milk just what he thought fit.

Under the co-operative system, which speedily became popular, **the farmers became themselves the owners of the creamery and appointed their own manager,** and through a committee elected by themselves controlled the undertaking, working it with the energy of self-interest. In Irish co-operative dairy societies each farmer takes, as a rule, as many one pound shares as he has milch cows. He is paid interest on his shares, and besides the payments for milk, which are made monthly, he is entitled, at the close of the season, to his share of the profits on the sale of the butter, which are divisible proportionately to the value of the milk supplied by each farmer.

These creameries are of two kinds—central and auxiliary. At a central creamery the operations include the whole process of butter-making from the separation of the cream to the manufacture and sale of the butter. At an auxiliary creamery the cream only is separated, and the other processes of manufacture are conducted at a central creamery to which the cream is despatched.

Auxiliary dairy societies are formed, as a rule, in poor districts where the milk supply is small, and the expense of a full plant and staff to deal with manufacture and sale would be too heavy a tax on the industry. Sometimes these auxiliaries are owned by independent societies who simply sell their cream to a central, or else pay the central a stipulated sum per cwt. for the manufacture of their butter.

The turnover of the co-operative dairy societies in 1906 was £1,507,000. The

statistics for 1907 have not been yet fully tabulated, but it is probable the figures last year will be close on £1,750,000. Farmers calculate the co-operative creameries have increased the average annual value of the milk supply from their cows by about thirty shillings, and this has encouraged them to increase the number of animals kept. It is noticeable year by year in the dairy societies that, while the area over which they work is unchanged and the membership of each society remains more or less stationary, the milk supply increases from year to year, a proof of the increased number of dairy cows kept.

A federation formed by the dairy societies for the more effective sale of butter and purchase of dairy requisites, called the "Irish Co-operative Agency Society," was formed in 1893.

About one-tenth of the output of the co-operative dairies is sold through this federation, which has steadily improved its position every year. Its turnover in 1907 was almost £200,000.

One of the most popular forms agricultural co-operation in Ireland takes is in the establishment of credit societies, or agricultural banks. These are very simple in their constitution. A number of farmers join together in a society which is registered under the Friendly Societies Act without shares and with unlimited liability. The members are made jointly and severally liable for the debt of the association. They get deposits from private individuals or borrow money from a large bank, or from a Government department, on the strength of the unlimited guarantee of all the members for its safe keeping. This is lent out to members who require loans by a committee elected by themselves.

It has generally been found possible to borrow money at from 3 to 4 per cent., and to lend it at the popular rate of one penny per pound per month. Money is only lent for profitable and productive purposes or to effect some economy, and the sureties of the borrower are bound to see that the man who receives a loan applies it to the purpose for which it was approved. The Congested Districts Board and the Department of Agriculture have shown their approval of this class of society by advancing loans to them at 3 per cent., the amounts so lent varying from £50 to £100.

These societies are most numerous in congested districts, and indeed they seem to flourish most and to be best managed in the poorest parishes. They have saved many farmers from the clutches of the "gombeen man," the typical Irish usurer, who is not by any means an extinct species yet, though the advance of an organised rural civilisation is unsuitable to his habits.

After the banks the next most numerous form of co-operative associations are the agricultural societies. These buy fertilisers, feeding stuffs, machinery, seeds and other requirements for their members. They get them at wholesale prices and of guaranteed quality. The smallest farmer who is a member of one of these associations is able to get his single bag of manure on the same terms as the largest landowner.

A very important agency in bringing about this result was the Irish Agricultural Wholesale Society, which is a union of the co-operative agricultural societies in Ireland. The "I.A.W.S.," as it is popularly called, bulks the orders of a hundred or more societies, and so obtains bed-rock terms from manufacturers. Many of the dairy societies also add the supply of their members' requirements to their work as butter-makers, and some of them are beginning to have almost as large a turnover in this direction as in the sales of butter.

The poultry societies market their members' poultry and eggs. The eggs are graded and packed in the most modern fashion. Every egg is tested before it is packed and sent away. A federation of these societies was formed a little over a year ago, but it is too soon to say anything about its working. It has helped—like the butter agency—to prevent inter-competition between societies, and will probably—like the other federations—establish itself firmly in a few years. The I.A.O.S. is devoting special attention to the organising of poultry societies, as the sale of poultry and eggs bulks almost as largely in the exports from Ireland as the exports from butter.

In Ulster the co-operative scutch mills have enabled flax-growers to get their flax scutched with greater care than before. The farmers either erect or rent a scutch mill, appoint their own manager, and see that the technical processes connected with the scutching are carefully done. These societies also secure for their members reliable flax-seed, importing it from Holland directly, or securing it through the Irish Agricultural Wholesale Society, with which many of them are federated. They have also an agency in Belfast for the sale of their flax.

It is impossible to deal in detail with the varied business of the miscellaneous societies, some of which buy expensive machinery, steam threshers, traction engines, &c., and hire to their members. Some—mainly composed of women workers—make and sell lace, crochet, embroidery, and rugs. Some societies of bee-keepers market their honey.

Broadly speaking the whole purpose of this revolution in agricultural business which is going on in Ireland is to give to the farmer the complete control of the manufacture and marketing of his produce, and to eliminate unnecessary middlemen between the producer and the consumer. There are at present in these 961 societies about 100,000 members, and its annual turnover is now about £2,000,000. The movement is growing week by week. Opposition to it is dying out, and if the rate of progress is maintained in five years, Irish agriculture will be as thoroughly organised as agriculture in Denmark.

The organising body, which for some years was subsidised by the Department of Agriculture, is now absolutely independent of State aid or control, and is supported entirely by the contributions of its affiliated societies and their members. It is one of the best testimonials to the good work done that the members of societies have made an enthusiastic response to the appeal for aid, some societies of small farmers sending as much as £30 to the central body.

GEORGE W. RUSSELL.

THE NATIONAL CROPS.

LAND STILL GOING OUT OF CULTIVATION.

The national crops of Great Britain were for the year 1908 grown on 32,211,381 acres, which was **a decline in area of 32,066 acres, as compared with 1907,** or 0·1 per cent. Here is a table which shows the case for each class of crop:

Crops.	1908.	1907.	Increase or Decrease.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Per cent.
Cereal crops ..	6,914,595	6,997,514	— 82,919	— 1·2
Other	3,144,078	3,215,638	— 71,560	— 2·2
Clover and rotation grasses	4,421,587	4,490,961	— 69,374	— 1·5
Bare fallow ..	315,252	261,450	+ 53,802	+ 20·6
Total arable ..	14,795,512	14,965,563	— 170,051	— 1·1
Permanent pasture	17,415,869	17,277,884	+ 137,985	+ 0·8
Total	32,211,381	32,243,447	— 32,066	— 0·1

There has thus been a decline in each group of crops, against which has to be set the increase in the area uncropped and pasture. The decrease of nearly 83,000 acres in the area under cereals brings the figure for these crops below that of 1904, the lowest hitherto recorded. Other crops—excluding clover and rotation grasses—exhibit the largest relative decrease. Clover and rotation grasses have more than lost the increase of 50,000 acres recorded last year, and now stand at a lower figure than in any year since 1884. The area of the bare fallow, which decreased considerably in each of the last three years, during 1908 increased by nearly 54,000 acres, or more than 20½ per cent. The decrease in the arable land amounts, on the whole, to 170,000 acres, or rather more than 1 per cent., of which 138,000 acres are accounted for by the further extension of permanent grass.

Among the cereal crops wheat alone shows an increase, amounting to less than 1,300 acres. Barley has declined by nearly 45,000 acres, and the area under this crop is the lowest on record. Oats show the relatively small decrease of 14,000 acres, and the area under this crop is still well above that recorded in 1905 or 1906. Rye has declined by more than 8,000 acres, or nearly 14 per cent., and its area is less than in any year since 1899. Beans, which showed a considerable increase in 1906, and again in 1907, have now declined by nearly 15,000 acres, but they still cover considerably more ground than in any recent year except 1907. The decrease in peas amounts to over 2,000 acres, or nearly 1½ per cent.

The details of the cereal crops are given in the following table:

Crop.	1908.	1907.	Increase or Decrease.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Per cent.
Wheat	1,626,733	1,625,445	+ 1,288	+ 0·1
Barley	1,667,437	1,712,094	— 44,657	— 2·6
Oats ..	3,108,918	3,122,898	— 13,980	— 0·4
Rye ..	52,744	61,211	— 8,467	—13·8
Beans .	295,012	309,730	— 14,718	— 4·8
Peas ..	163,751	166,136	— 2,385	— 1·4

Among other crops decreases are likewise almost general, the only instances to the contrary being potatoes, lucerne, and small fruit. **Potatoes show an increase of over 13,000 acres,** or nearly 2½ per cent., thus recovering most of the loss of 17,000 acres noted in 1907. The area under **turnips and swedes,** which has decreased almost continuously for many years past, shows a decline of 12,000 acres, and is the smallest on record. The area devoted to mangold, which, on the other hand, has increased in recent years, has now declined by over 22,000 acres, or 5 per cent.

The area under small fruit has steadily increased since 1897, and there is a further increase of 2,700 acres, or over 3 per cent. Hops, on the other hand, have declined almost regularly since 1885, and now exhibit a further decrease of no less than 6,000 acres, or nearly 13½ per cent. Cabbage and kohl-rabi, rape, and the aggregate of minor crops, have also declined considerably.

The green and other crops are summarised in the following table:

Crop.	1908.	1907.	Increase or Decrease.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Per cent.
Potatoes	562,105	548,920	+ 13,185	+ 2·4
Turnips & swedes	1,550,897	1,562,978	— 12,081	— 0·8
Mangold	427,772	450,053	— 22,281	— 5·0
Cabbage & kohl-rabi	86,375	95,583	— 9,208	— 9·6
Rape ..	86,495	91,272	— 4,777	— 5·2
Vetches or tares.	126,083	154,056	— 27,973	—18·2
Lucerne ..	65,157	63,795	+ 1,362	+ 2·1
Hops ..	38,916	44,938	— 6,022	—13·4
Small fruit	84,873	82,175	+ 2,698	+ 3·3
Other crops	115,405	121,868	— 6,463	— 5·3

The area returned as reserved for hay shows on the whole a decline of less than 5,000 acres, an increase of over 13,000 acres in the case of permanent grass being more than counterbalanced by a decrease in the case of clover and rotation grasses. **Of the area for grazing** there has been a decline of more than 51,000 acres among the clover and rotation grasses, but permanent grass has increased by nearly 125,000 acres.

NATIONAL FARMYARD.

The national farmyard of Great Britain in 1908 contained 1,119,324 **horses used for agricultural purposes,** an increase of 3,397 over 1907. Unbroken horses one year and above numbered 290,809, and under one year 126,538.

Cattle have declined in number as well as horses. The cows, heifers and other cattle numbered 6,905,134 head, as against 6,912,067 in 1907, a decrease of 6,933. **Sheep have increased** to 27,039,730, an increase of 924,275, or 3½ per cent.—a total number not reached since 1899. **Pigs show an increase of 187,000,** or more than 7 per cent.

OUR IMPORTED FOOD.

£3 4s. 11d. PER HEAD OF POPULATION.

The increased dependence of the population of the United Kingdom on imported food is concisely shown by a comparison of the quantity per head annually received for a series of years (says Mr. R. H. Rew, of the Board of Agriculture). Returns of imports have been collected on substantially the same basis for over fifty years, and by arranging the figures in septennial periods the gradual growth of supplies is clearly indicated.

Thus in 1859–65 we imported 126 lb. per head of wheat and flour, in 1866–72 the quantity had risen to 146 lb., and in 1873–9 to 200 lb. In the next septennial period the quantity per head was 239 lb., rising to 256 lb. in 1887–93, 273 lb. in 1894–1900, and 294 lb. in 1901–7. In the three last periods the total crop of wheat in this country fell from 112 lb. per head in 1887–93 to 88 lb. in 1894–1900, and 75 lb. in 1901–7. Even assuming therefore that the whole of the home crop was actually available for food—which, in view of the requirements for seed and other purposes, is not the case—**four-fifths of the wheat consumed in the United Kingdom is supplied from abroad.**

In the case of another important article of diet—potatoes—the position is very different. The period of maximum imports was in 1873–9, when 23 lb. per head were received; but in the following period the quantity fell to 13 lb., and in 1887–93 to 8 lb. Since then the imports of potatoes per head have risen to 13 lb. in 1894–1900, and 18 lb. in 1901–7; but the oversea supply still represents only a small fraction of the total consumption. The figures seem to indicate that **potatoes may be regarded as forming a somewhat less important item in the national dietary than formerly.** In 1887–93 the total crop of the United Kingdom amounted to 359 lb., in 1894–1900 to 310 lb., and in 1901–7 to 321 lb. per head of the population. Comparing the first and last periods, and adding the imports and home crop together, **it appears that the consumption of potatoes for all purposes has diminished by 28 lb. per head as compared with 1887-93, though it is greater than in 1894-1900 by 18 lb.**

The greatest relative increase in imported supplies appears in the case of meat. The imports of beef and veal have increased from 3·3 lb. per head in 1859–65 to 22·6 lb. per head in 1901–7. At the same time imported pig-meat—including in that term bacon, hams, pork, etc.—increased from 4·2 lb. to 19·9 lb. per head. Mutton and lamb imports have increased from 1 lb. in 1859–65 to 10·7 lb. per head in 1901–7. Imports of butter and margarine have increased from 3·5 lb. per head in 1859–65 to 13·3 lb. in 1901–7, while those of cheese increased from 2·7 lb. in 1859–65 to 6·7 lb. in 1901–7. The growth of the trade in imported eggs appears most striking when measured in this way, the number per head of population having risen from only 8 in 1859–65 to 53 in 1901–7.

Prices and Quantities.—The value per head of imported food supplies is less reliable than the quantities as an index of the consumption, owing to the variations in the level of prices for the same article, and also to the changes in quality, and consequently the market value of the commodities. There is no doubt, for example, that the intrinsic value, or "quality," of a given quantity of imported meat or butter is not only absolutely higher now than it was, say, forty years ago, but it is also relatively higher in comparison with the home produce with which it enters into competition. But comparison by values has the advantage of enabling articles which are measured by different denominations, and for which in some cases no quantities are returned, to be added together. It is thus possible to show **the total expenditure per head of population on a number of commodities, bearing in mind that the values represent cost *ex* ship, and** do not therefore include inland carriage to market, cost of distribution, or profits after landing. The average values per head at the first, middle, and last septennial periods for these articles were as follows:

Years.	Wheat.		Meat.		Butter.		Cheese.		Eggs.		Fruit, Nuts and Vegetables.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1859–65	12	4	3	10	3	2	1	2	–	5	1	3
1880–86	20	10	13	10	6	7	2	8	1	6	3	5
1901–07	18	5	22	7	11	2	3	1	3	1	6	7

The total expenditure per head of population on these articles of imported food has thus risen from £1 2s. 2d. in 1859–65 to £3 4s. 11d. in 1901–7. The only check to the upward progression of the curve appears in the interval from 1880–6 to 1887–93, and this was due to a fall in prices rather than to a reduction in quantities imported.

The arrested progress of imports of live animals for food became a decline in 1907. Although there were 2,000 more live sheep imported than in 1906, the number of live cattle brought into the United Kingdom fell by 89,000, or nearly 16 per cent. below the figure for the preceding year.

FARMER'S CHARTER.

The **Agricultural Holdings Act**, passed in 1906, comes into operation on January 1, 1909. It has been called "the Farmers' Charter." **Its main object is to secure compensation to tenant farmers for improvements made by them when they leave their farms.**

The basis of compensation is to be the value of the improvements to the incoming tenant. The compensation is to be fixed by a single arbitrator, and the amount fixed is to be paid within two months of the date of the award.

THREE GREAT INDUSTRIES.
COTTON: WOOL: ENGINEERING.
WHAT THE WORKERS PAY AND ARE PAID.

The Cotton Industry, the Woollen and Worsted Industry, and the Engineering and Shipbuilding Industry are three of our great industries. Here are some striking figures set out by the Board of Trade which show at a glance how many people are engaged in these industries in certain homogeneous groups of towns; the percentage of the population so engaged; their rents and prices; their wages; and the infantile death-rate, and the average death-rate. The wages given refer to September, 1906, so far as cotton and wool are concerned, and to October, 1908, so far as the engineering and shipbuilding groups are concerned.

Cotton Towns.	Blackb'rn.	Bolton.	Burnley.	Oldham.	Preston.	Rochdale.
Population in 1901	127,626	168,215	97,043	137,246	112,989	83,114
Percentage of population engaged in cotton trade, including dyeing and bleaching	29·4	19·5	29·0	21·5	22·1	18·5
Index numbers (London = 100):						
Rents	50	53	53	60	48	52
Prices	89	89	95	95	90	93
Rents and prices combined	81	82	87	88	82	85
Wages in cotton trade:						
Weavers, 4-loom, Men ..	22s. to 28s.	—	22s. to 28s.	—	22s. to 29s.	—
„ „ Women ..	22s. „ 28s.	—	22s. „ 28s.	—	21s. „ 27s.	20s. to 24s.
„ 3-loom, „ ..	—	—	—	—	—	15s. „ 18s.
Spinners, Men	—	40s. to 50s.	—	38s. to 46s.	35s. to 45s.	—
Winders, Women	—	12s. „ 16s.	—	13s. „ 18s.	—	—
Infantile mortality per 1,000 births, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	184	167	208	170	209	146
Death-rate per 1,000 of the population, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	18·7	18·6	19·8	20·0	21·2	18·5

THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

The above table gives certain statistics as to the conditions which prevail in the towns engaged in the spinning and weaving of cotton; it includes only those in which this industry affords occupation to a large percentage of the population.

These towns belong entirely to the Lancashire and Cheshire group, and accordingly show low index numbers for both rents and prices. All the towns are marked by **high mortality rates**, both infantile and general; the infantile mortality rates in Preston and Burnley are very striking. The cotton industry carried on by the towns gives employment to **a large amount of female labour**, but this characteristic is most marked in the case of the towns which are chiefly engaged in weaving. In the spinning towns of Bolton, Oldham, and Rochdale the percentage of **married and widowed women** occupied in work for gain, though very considerable, is not so high as in Blackburn, Burnley, and Preston, which are mainly weaving centres; in each of the latter group the proportion exceeds 30 per cent., and in Blackburn it is 37·0 per cent., which is the highest rate found in any large town in the country. The larger percentages of total population shown for Blackburn and Burnley as engaged in the staple industry, as compared with the spinning group, is mainly due to the greater opportunities for female labour afforded by their particular occupation; in Preston, where the percentage is only slightly higher than in Oldham, there is a good deal of spinning.

In the weaving branch of the cotton industry both men and women are employed, and where they are engaged on the same work—e.g., four loom weaving, their earnings do not differ greatly. In, the "mule" spinning branch, however, the spinners are practically all men, and in the principal spinning districts, Oldham and Bolton, their earnings are high.

THE WOOLLEN AND WORSTED INDUSTRY.

The first table on the following page gives similar information as to certain towns occupied chiefly in the manufacture of woollen and worsted goods.

These towns belong to the Yorkshire group, and exhibit for both rents and prices index numbers somewhat higher than those for the cotton-working towns. In their mortality rates they do not compare unfavourably with the seventy-six great towns of England and Wales.

The woollen trades give employment to much female labour, but the percentages of married and widowed women occupied in these towns are not large, particularly when compared with those of the cotton towns. In Bradford the percentage is 18·1; in Keighley, 13·9; in Huddersfield, 12·9; and in Halifax, 12·4. Wages are low.

ENGINEERING AND SHIPBUILDING.

The second table on the following page relates to towns chiefly engaged in engineering and shipbuilding.

The general levels of rents and prices are relatively high, but the variations shown by

the rent index numbers are very striking, and range from 54 for Stockton to 76 for Newcastle-on-Tyne; the three Tyneside towns of Newcastle, Jarrow, and Gateshead stand out conspicuously as a group showing high index numbers. The towns of this industrial group have, as a whole, high mortality rates. The infantile mortality rates are not so high as in the Lancashire group, but the general mortality is much the same.

Woollen and Worsted Towns.	Bradford.	Halifax.	Huddersfield.	Keighley.
Population, 1901	279,767	104,936	95,047	41,564
Percentage of population engaged in wollen and worsted industry	18·4	12·7	14·6	17·0
Index numbers (London = 100):				
Rents	59		64	57
Prices	95	94	97	92
Rents and prices combined	88	86	90	85
Wages in woollen and worsted trade:				
Weavers, 1-loom, Women	—	12s. to 16s.	15s. to 21s.	
,, 2-loom, ,,	13s. to 17s.	13s. ,, 17s.	—	
Drawers, Women, time work	—	10s. ,, 12s.	—	11s. to 13s.
,, ,, piece ,,				12s. ,, 16s.
Twisters-in and drawers-in, Men	28s. 6d. to 33s.	—		
Doublers, Women	—	10s. to 12s.		
Combers, Men	20s. to 23s.	—		
,, Women	11s. ,, 14s.	—		
Wool washers, scourers, driers, Men				
,, sorters, Men	31s. ,, 32s.			—
Spinners, Women	8s. ,, 11s.			10s. to 12s.
Dyers, Men	24s.			
Warp dressers	29s. to 32s.			
Crabbers, Singers, calenderers, and mercerisers	22s. ,, 26s.			
Infantile mortality, per 1,000 births, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	159	140	158	
Death-rate, per 1,000 of the population, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	17·2	16·8	17·4	

Engineering and Shipbuilding.	Barrow.	Gateshead.	Jarrow.	N'castle-on-Tyne.	South Shields.	Stockton.	Sunderland.
Population, 1901	57,568	109,888	34,295	215,328	97,263	51,478	146,077
Percentage of population engaged in engineering and shipbuilding trade	15·7	6·4	17·1		6·9	10·6	10·5
Index numbers (London = 100):							
Rents	63	66	68	76	61	54	59
Prices	99	98	98	98	94	90	94
Rents and prices combined	92	92	92	94	87	90	87
Wages in engineering and shipbuilding trade:							
Fitters	35s.	35s.	35s.		35s.	35s.	35s.
Turners	36s.		35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.
Smiths	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.
Patternmakers	37s. 3d.	38s.	38s.	38s.		38s.	38s.
Angle-iron smiths:							
In boiler shops	42s. 6d.	39s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	39s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	39s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	40s. 6d.	40s. 6d.	40s. 6d.
In shipyards	37s. 10d.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	34s.
Platers:							
In boiler shops	40s. 5d.	38s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	38s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	38s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.	38s. 6d.	39s. 6d.	39s., 41s.
In shipyards	35s. 9d.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.	35s.
Riveters and Caulkers:							
In boiler shops	37s. 3d.	37s. 6d.	37s. 6d.	37s. 6d.	37s. 6d.	37s. 6d.	37s. 6d.
In shipyards	33s. 6d.	33s.	33s.	33s.	33s.	33s.	33s.
Labourers	18s. to 21s. 6d.	—		19s. to 23s. 6d.	22s.	20s.	20s. 6d. to 21s. 6d.
Infantile mortality per 1,000 births, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	144	170		167	156	163	167
Death-rate per 1,000 of the population, average of 10 years, 1896 to 1905	14·9	18·7		20·4	19·1	17·9	20·6

THE NEW PATENT ACT.

By the Patents and Designs (Consolidation) Act, 1907, which came into operation in 1908, **the whole of the law of the United Kingdom relating to Patents and Designs has been consolidated.**

A check is now placed on the system under which foreign manufacturers were enabled to take out patents in this country without any intention of working them here. The Act provides that British patents may be revoked when they are worked exclusively or mainly abroad, unless satisfactory reasons can be given why they are not worked in the United Kingdom.

It enables compulsory licences to be obtained where it can be shown that any trade or industry in the United Kingdom is unfairly prejudiced by the conditions attached by the patentee to the purchase, hire or use of patented articles, or the using or working of patented processes; and means have been provided whereby existing contracts containing these conditions can be determined by either party on payment of reasonable compensation.

The Act also contains further safeguards against the issue of invalid patents, and enables patentees to surrender their patents where they desire to do so. It enables patentees to obtain patents of addition, for which no renewal fees will be payable; it prevents patents from being held to be invalid on the ground of disconformity, unless it can be shown that the invention has been anticipated; it provides a simpler procedure for the extension of the term of a patent where it can be shown that the patentee has been inadequately remunerated; it does away with the necessity for obtaining Private Acts for the restoration of lapsed patents which have become void owing to the failure of the patentee to pay renewal fees within the prescribed time; it simplifies and cheapens the procedure in the Courts in actions for infringement or for the revocation of patents; it brings unregistered patent agents under regulation; and requires the Comptroller to refuse to recognise as an agent for patents any person who neither resides nor has a place of business in the United Kingdom.

When the Act became operative, it led many foreign owners of British patents to make arrangements to have them worked in Great Britain.

The "Times" pointed out that "the evil aimed at had become serious. A patent was obtained in this country; the patentee or the person to whom it was assigned did not seriously intend to work it here—at all events on a considerable scale. His business premises were in Germany or Belgium, and his real, though unavowed, object was to make use of the process or to manufacture the article there, and to prevent a competitive trade growing up in this country. Some inventors never intended to make use of their patents anywhere; they had gained their end if they could be certain that their goods manufactured in some other way were not undersold by goods manufactured in accordance with the process which they had patented."

Among the manufactures which are said to be worked here on account of this Act are aniline and soda, indigo, pottery, razors, shoes and gas plant.

PATENTS.

29,040 patents were applied for in 1907, and 16,272 were sealed; 24,219 simple designs and 709 sets were registered; 6,255 trade marks were also registered in the same year.

MANUFACTURED ARTICLES.

The extent to which the different parts of the Empire got their "Imports of articles wholly or mainly manufactured" in 1906 from (1) Foreign countries; or (2) Other parts of the British Empire, is shown in the following table.

Country.	Foreign Countries. 1906.	Other Parts of the Empire. 1906.	Total all Countries. 1906.
	£	£	£
United Kingdom	136,303,000	19,506,000	155,809,000
British India (by sea)	10,222,000	52,033,000	62,255,000
Australian Commonwealth (excluding Inter-State Trade)	7,761,000	25,311,000	33,072,000
Dominion of New Zealand	1,466,000	9,339,000	10,805,000
Dominion of Canada	22,804,000	11,851,000	34,655,000
Newfoundland	267,000	658,000	925,000
British South Africa—			
Via Cape of Good Hope	2,442,000	10,026,000	12,468,000
" Natal	1,303,000	4,368,000	5,671,000
" Delagoa Bay	981,000	1,936,000	2,917,000
" Beira	85,000	320,000	405,000
Total British South Africa	4,811,000	16,650,000	21,461,000

THE FIGHT FOR METALS.

STEEL: IRON: COPPER: ALUMINIUM.

The fight for the metals is one of the romances of industry.

The present period has been aptly termed the "**age of steel**," following the precedent established by the terms—the stone, the copper, and the iron ages.

But steel is a product which is vastly more valuable in its composition than either of its historic predecessors was, ranging all the way from the tough and ductile material which is used for boilers and bridges to that employed, say, for cutting tools, or, again, for armour-plates. At these extremes the steels have few physical properties in common.

Moreover, steel of any grade in this extensive range is an actual alloy of iron with other metals or non-metallic elements, and the very numerous grades and qualities in which it is produced are due to the almost infinite variations in the proportions in which these are added. During the last ten years or so the study of the metallurgy of the steels has been pursued with great enthusiasm and with much success. And yet many practical problems still remain unsolved.

Chemistry, the microscope, the pyrometer, the testing machine, and the cumulative results of practical work, have been and are constantly being laid under contribution, and the end is not yet in sight.

Concurrently with these systematic researches into the nature and grades of different steel alloys, others have been in progress relating to **alloys of copper with other metals**, and to the influences which these have. The old alloys of copper and tin, and of copper, tin, and lead, producing gun-metal, and brass respectively, have been largely superseded by more complicated alloys of which these form the bases, but into which numerous other elements have been introduced, as aluminium, phosphorus, iron, nickel, manganese, &c.

By the use of these, structures which are subjected to high pressures or high stresses can be made much lighter than formerly. **Propellers of steamships and airships**, the framings, engines, parts, and machinery of motor-cars, many pumps, and toothed wheels, are familiar examples. Hence an important aspect of modern metallurgical advance is that the present is an **age of alloys**.

Pure metals are hardly used by engineers. Malleable iron and copper are used as pure as they can be obtained, though they are never free from traces of foreign elements. The microscope reveals very much of the physical aspects of alloying elements. You can see them in the form of patches, blotches, strips, bands, in polished specimens, and also observe the effects of chemical and physical tests thereon. **A new vocabulary has been created, and a new technical literature, around these novel and fascinating researches in alloys.**

It is believed that at the present rate of depletion, and if afforestation is not adopted, **the supplies of the world's timber will be practically exhausted in about thirty years.** If so, the mineral supplies of the world will assume greater importance than ever. Mr. R. Stokes has stated that **the value of the annual mineral yield of the British Empire alone exceeds £200,708,000.** Of the world's total yield in 1906 the British Empire produced the following percentages: Diamonds, 98 per cent.; mica, 90 per cent.; asbestos, 90 per cent.; tin, 73 per cent.; gold, 60 per cent.; graphite, 45 per cent.; manganese, 40 per cent.; coal, 30 per cent.; iron, 18 per cent.; lead, 15 per cent.; copper, 9 per cent.

The materials which are in greatest demand and of greatest national value after coal are **iron and steel.** The returns of pig-iron do not represent the amount which becomes used in the form of castings, because the largest proportion by far is required for making steel, and some for malleable iron.

The world's production of pig-iron in 1907 was 60,163,722 tons. This shows an increase as compared with the production of 1906 of 1,550,107 tons; and, by comparison with that of 1905, of 6,165,757 tons. **The contributions of the principal countries were**: The United States, 25,781,361 tons; Germany, 13,045,760 tons; Great Britain, 9,023,856 tons; France, 3,588,949 tons; Russia, 2,748,296 tons; Austria and Hungary, 1,789,165 tons; Belgium, 1,427,940 tons.

This huge and ever-growing demand for steel comes from shipbuilders, and railways chiefly. For ships it is used in different forms, as in plates and rolled shapes of various sections, angles, tees, channels, &c. In engineer's work steel often forms the principal item in the building of hoisting machines, mining machinery, shop floors, roofs, and in many machines and machine tools. Enormous quantities of large water-pipes are made in steel sheet, formerly cast in iron.

Some idea of the enormous quantities of steel which are required in an enterprising country may be gathered from the figures which tell us that though the United States produced over 23,000,000 tons of steel in 1907, she only had 1,300,000 tons available for export.

Steel is very cheap—the cheapest material an engineer can use. **The ordinary kinds** employed for ships, rails, bridges, &c., cost from about a halfpenny to a trifle over a halfpenny per pound. **The very highest qualities of steel**, which are used for cutlery and tools, cost ten times as much, and armour-plate sixteen times as much, due chiefly to the cost of human labour and skill spent in manufacture. Ordinary steel plates and sections are generally current at present from about £5 to £5 10s. a ton, and boiler plates at £6 10s.

Iron ranks next to steel. Practically all the pig which is not converted into steel is used for foundry-castings, or is puddled to make wrought-iron, a distinct variety being used in each case, termed foundry and forge pig respectively. The latter is very small in quantity because steel has so largely displaced it. Pig and steel are usually produced in the same countries, often in the same works, but much of the ore is often either imported or carried by rail, canal, or sea, from the mines to the furnaces.

Pig-iron, used for foundry-castings, employed extensively, its province having been much less invaded by steel than that of wrought-iron has by mild steel. Large numbers of steel castings are, however, made where iron would have been formerly employed. And many articles are built up in mild-steel plates and sections instead of being cast. But these inroads have been more than compensated for by the growth of the foundry business, by the substitution of iron for wood, and by the growth of machine-moulded work.

Wrought-iron is now mostly used by smiths for forgings, though more forgings are now made of steel than of iron, especially where work is of a repetitive or wholesale character. There is practically no demand for iron now for ships or boilers, and very little for plates. An exception must be made in the case of the Yorkshire iron, which is of a very special quality, and costs about three times as much as steel (£21 a ton at present), and of the Swedish iron, though most of that is used in the manufacture of the best crucible steels. The British demand for wrought-iron is satisfied with a product of about a million tons a year, at which it remains now nearly stationary.

The British exports of iron and steel advanced in 1907, and exceeded the combined exports of the United States and Germany. We exported in that year 5,166,000 tons, compared with 4,682,000 tons in 1906, an increase of 484,000 tons. The United States exported about 1,300,000 tons only; Germany, 3,432,000 tons.

The British imports of iron and steel in 1907 were 280,000 tons less than those of the previous year. The United States imports increased by about 150,000 tons; those of Germany by 114,000 tons. China has begun to export pig to the United States from the Hangyung Works on the Yangtse, 600 miles from the sea. Shipments of pig and manufactured iron from these works amounted to 41,050 tons in 1906.

The United States Steel Corporation deal as usual with immense figures. The gross earnings in 1907 were 757,014,768 dols., an increase of 60,257,877 dols. over those of the year previous. The net earnings were 160,964,674 dols., an increase of 4,340,401 dols. over the previous best year; 210,180 workpeople are in the employ of the Corporation, and 160,825,822 dols. are paid in wages; 22,403,801 tons of iron ore were mined, and 13,099,548 tons of steel produced, and 10,376,742 tons of finished products, besides 12,373,938 tons of coke made.

Canada produced 633,718 tons of pig in 1907, and 666,590 tons of steel ingots.

Copper ranks next in importance to iron. The total production of copper in the world in 1907 was 689,090 tons, or 17,370 tons less than that of the previous year. Nearly two-thirds of this, or 446,970 tons, was used in Europe, Germany being the largest consumer, taking 160,217 tons. England came second with 118,430 tons, and France third with 70,712 tons.

The largest proportion comes from the United States and Mexico, but many countries contribute to a substantial aggregate—Australia, Chili, Cuba, Russia, and a small proportion from Cornwall.

The present price of copper is very low—about £62 a ton. In 1905 it began to rise rapidly, and reached £110 a ton in March, 1907, when it was at its highest. Then it dropped rapidly to £62 a ton at the end of December.

The world's production of copper has only increased by a little over 2,000 tons in 1907, as compared with an increase of 32,000 tons in 1906, and 38,000 tons in 1905. The mines of the United States and Mexico are chiefly responsible for this great relative falling off. On the other hand, Japan, Australia, Russia, and Peru have largely increased their supplies. Yet the mines of America and Mexico still supply over 457,000 tons, or more than three-fifths of the world's output.

With the ever-increasing employment of electricity, requiring conductors of copper, and the vast number of copper-tin alloys, the metal ranks second only in importance to iron.

The following are the commoner alloys of copper: Aluminium bronze, Babbitt metal, bell metal, bull metal, brasses, bronzes, or gun-metals, Britannia metal, delta metal, German silver, manganese bronze, phosphor bronze, Sterro metal, Muntz metal, speculum metal.

Tin is of nearly equal value with copper, because it enters into the composition of nearly all the copper alloys—the commoner brasses excluded. The best tin comes from Banca and Malacca; Cornwall, Saxony, Bohemia, Australia, send supplies. The present price ranges from £133 to £135 a ton.

Lead is smelted from galena, chiefly from Cornwall, Derbyshire, Cumberland, Scotland, Saxony, Spain, and the United States. Its price is about £14 per ton. Lead is employed more largely than ever. In the form of sheets and plates an extended use has been developed in electrical storage batteries. It is an element in the numerous brass alloys and in the bearing metals. It is an ingredient in all the soft solders.

Aluminium is proving a metal of great utility. It is of equal value used as an alloying element as in the pure state. The fact is of interest that the cheapness of aluminium is due to the utilisation of electricity generated by water power at Foyers and Niagara.

There is no other example of the rapid fall in the cost of a metal at all approaching to this. Its present price is about 1s. 7d. per pound. Aluminium is cast, forged, and rolled into sheets. One of its most valuable series of alloys is that with copper, forming aluminium bronze. In an indirect way, it is of great and growing value; that is, as an agent in producing sound castings in iron and steel, which results when it is added in minute quantities.

The value of the gold produced in 1906 in the British Empire was £40,500,000. By far the largest quantity contributed by any country came from the Transvaal, the value being £24,606,336. Next came the Australian Commonwealth, £14,647,716; then New Zealand, £2,270,904; British India, £2,230,286; South Rhodesia, £1,985,100; the Gold Coast, £822,025; British Guiana, £316,900; Sarawak, Papua, and the Federated Malay States, £237,696; Cape Colony, £1,117; and Natal, £308.

Silver is supplied by Mexico, Peru, Chili, and British Colonies, with a total of about 500,000 tons annually. It is used chiefly for coinage and silver plate and plating.

DEVELOPMENTS IN ELECTRICITY.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY: WIRELESS TELEPHONY: PHOTO TELEGRAPHY: METALLIC FILAMENTS: ELECTRIC FURNACES.

Electricity is daily adding to its victories and yet holds many in reserve.

Wireless telegraphy has been gradually conquering the difficulties incidental to distance. Since October 17th, 1907, communication across the Atlantic has not been interrupted for more than a few hours between the station at Clifden, in Ireland, and Glace Bay, in Nova Scotia. These stations have been erected in order to embody improvements which could not well be introduced at Poldhu, in Cornwall, nor at Cape Cod, nor at the old Glace Bay station.

The new last-named station is fitted with four towers, standing in the centre of an outer circle of sixteen masts. The vertical wires in the middle, each 200 ft. long, are continued in 200 horizontal radial wires, each 1,000 ft. long, supported by these circles. This gives a wave-length of 12,000ft.

The difficulties which have been successively encountered and overcome cannot be stated except in highly technical terms. Many difficulties which had been anticipated have proved imaginary, while the real ones were often not foreseen. Apart from the troubles due to defects in machinery and mechanism, there are others of an atmospheric character. Clear sunlight and blue skies are far less favourable to transmission than dark nights. In the morning and evening, when daylight only extends across a portion of the Atlantic, signals become weak or are not received at all. Local storms are injurious, but those which involve the whole of the Atlantic are not.

In spite of all difficulties the Atlantic has been at last commercially bridged by wireless telegraphy. Since 1904 daily newspapers have been printed on the great liners. In seven years the distance for messages has been increased from 200 to 2,500 miles. Up to February, 1908, Marconi had transmitted 110,945 press words between England and America.

Wireless telephony, or radio-telephony, is the invention of Mr. Valdemar Poulsen, of Copenhagen. The first transmitting station was erected at Lyngby, near Copenhagen, in June, 1905. Following a first experimental receiving station 9 miles away, a station was erected at Esbjerg, on the west coast of Jutland, 180 miles away, where good telephonic signals were obtained. Afterwards a station was put up at South Shields, 530 miles away, 150 miles of which were overland. A mast 100 ft. high and a power of one kilowatt proved sufficient for perfect communication.

There is a station also at Cullercoats, near Tynemouth, and one at Hartland Point, in North Devon. Practically the same apparatus is used for telegraphic and telephonic communication, so that it may be possible to talk across the Atlantic. The only addition required is microphones coupled with the oscillating apparatus.

Two systems of photo-telegraphy are in rivalry —the Korn and the Belin. The idea dates back to a system adopted by Amstutz, in Cleveland, in 1897, which in part has been followed by Edouard Belin. In this a carbon photograph is prepared, with extra thick tissue to give the picture with relief. This is attached to a drum driven by an electric motor. A sapphire style is pressed against the surface of the picture, rising and falling and describing a spiral path.

Amstutz made the varying electric current dig a V-shaped style into a cylinder at the receiving station, revolving synchronously with that at the transmitting station. But Belin adopts a different method, using a beam from a Nernst lamp cast as a point on bromide paper wrapped round a cylinder which revolves synchronously with the transmitting drum. Using six lines to the millimetre, a picture of 5 in. by 7 in. can be transmitted in twenty-two minutes.

In the Korn system the photograph to be transmitted is a transparent film wrapped round a cylinder of glass. The light of a Nernst lamp is concentrated on one spot, and its rays pass through the film and are reflected by a prism on a double selenium cell at the bottom of the cylinder. The cylinder is advanced at a uniform rate on its longitudinal axis, so that every portion of the photograph sends its light in succession to the selenium cell, and the intensity of the light passing through it will vary with the intensity of the rays which it receives. The film to be printed is wrapped round another cylinder at the receiver end, moving synchronously with the transmitting cylinder, and a Nernst lamp which illuminates one portion of the film at a time, and the intensity of the illumination is varied with the intensity of the line currents which are received from the transmitter.

This is done by means of a **galvanometer.** The construction of this is such that a screen moved by the deflection of two galvanometer wires increases or lessens the amount of light which passes through the receiving film. A picture can be transmitted in from twelve to six minutes, depending on the distance apart of the parallel lines into which the picture is divided. If they are ½ millimetre apart twelve minutes is required, if 1 millimetre six minutes only.

Mr. Hans Knudsen has demonstrated that **a drawing or picture can be reproduced at a distance by means of wireless telegraphy.** The picture to be transmitted is drawn on a piece of glass with seccotine, and filings are dusted over it. The glass is then placed on the table of the transmitter and the picture is caused to travel backwards and forwards under a stylus which traverses across it slowly. In passing over the filings the stylus closes momentarily the primary circuit of an induction coil, the high tension side of which is connected to an aerial which transmits an electric wave.

The table of the receiver carries a smoked glass plate on which every electric wave is made to move a stylus in contact with the plate. The smoked glass etched in this way is used as a

photographic negative. A wireless impulse starts the receiver at the same instant as the transmitter, the latter being driven by clockwork.

The incandescent lamps with carbon filaments now have rivals in lamps with metallic filaments. Platinum wires were, it will be remembered, used years ago, but were displaced by Edison's carbonised bamboo. In the swing of events metals are coming into their own again, this time tantalum and tungsten, the trade name of the latter being the Osram lamp. Curiously, they are more fragile than the carbon filaments, but much variation has been found in the results of experiments, some of which were tested running much longer than carbon lamps.

They cost at present from three to four times as much as the carbon lamps, but consume less than half the amount of current. The tantalum lamp consumes about 1·9 watts, and the Osram about 1·25 watts per British candle-power, against from 3½ to 4 watts consumed by the carbon lamps.

In consequence of the high conductivity of the metallic filaments they have to be made very long and thin, which is the reason why they are so fragile. The highest terminal pressure which can be employed across a single lamp is 160 volts for tantalum, and 130 for tungsten, which is lower than most circuits carry. But two lamps can be substituted for one with increase of light and of cost.

Where alternating current is used an auto-transformer is necessary. Doubtless the difficulties incidental to the new lamps will be wholly overcome soon, and the advantage will be on the side of the consumer instead of on that of the companies. The supersession of the familiar carbon lamp seems now only a question of a year or two.

It is too early yet to forecast the future of the electric furnace in the wider spheres of metallurgy. It has been used for several years in some of the minor operations, as in melting and refining metals. At the present time much experimenting is going on, especially in some Continental countries, and several successful small plants are working commercially. The objective which is now being hoped for is the successful production of open-hearth steel by means of the electric current. It is stated that 500 kilowatts of electrical energy will suffice to smelt one ton of steel.

There is no difficulty either on the score of dynamo or of engine power, with the large gas engines and cheap producer or blast-furnace gas now available. But while small quantities of high-class crucible steel can be produced economically, the larger products of the mild steels cannot as yet. Pig-iron can be smelted and graded as well as in the blast furnace, but not so economically.

For smelting and melting there are several designs of furnaces, known by the names of the several inventors, which we need not enumerate. In some respects they are more controllable than those which use solid fuel, or gas. At present they are most successful in the preparation of the more costly metals and metalloids which are used in the iron and steel alloys, including the high-speed steels. These are vanadium, tungsten, molybdenum, ferro-silicon, ferro-chromium, etc. That they will be commercially successful and extensively employed in some departments of metallurgy is certain, probably not in all.

THE CENSUS OF PRODUCTION.

The Census of production provided for by the Act of 1906 has been taken during 1908, and the results will be eagerly expected. The importance of this Census is that for the first time it will give us definite information as to the size of our home market—the amount of goods which we require for our own domestic needs in contrast to the goods which we manufacture for export.

Mr. Asquith, speaking in 1903, said: "It is difficult to say exactly what the bulk of our home trade is, but the Board of Trade have computed that, as the wages paid in the export trade are something like 130 millions, and as the total wage-bill of the country is between 700 and 750 millions, the export trade does not employ more than one-fifth or one-sixth of the whole labour of the country. I say, then, you cannot judge of the industrial condition and progress of the country by looking only at its foreign trade. You are leaving out of sight by far the most important factor in making up the amount."

The British export trade in 1907 was £426,204,596. It is estimated that the British home trade in the same year was £4,262,000,000.

Take one item—the export of the shoe and leather trade was £2,000,000. But the "Shoe and Leather Record" estimates that the home market for shoes and leather is worth £15,000,000.

SIR C. FURNESS'S SCHEME.

A co-partnership scheme which Sir Christopher Furness offered to his men in the shipbuilding yards of Furness, Withy & Co., in order to guarantee a continuity of labour in the yards, was adopted by the men by an aggregate of ten votes to one, and will in all probability have far-reaching effects on the Hartlepools.

The scheme, which has been adopted for a twelve months' trial, provides that the men shall take up ten £1 shares in the works. This amount will, if desired, be deducted from the men's wages weekly at the rate of 5 per cent. Sir Christopher stipulates that on the part of the men there will not be any strikes, and he on his part gives an undertaking that the men will not be locked out. In addition, a works council will be established in each of the yards, and in case of any disputes the council will meet with the directors and managers and matters will be settled amicably. This is the principal point on which Sir Christopher insisted, as he stated that he believed if a continuity of labour was guaranteed orders could be got for ships. It is provided in the contract that on the money which the men have invested, 4 per cent. guaranteed interest will be paid. The present shareholders will receive 5 per cent., and any additional profit earned will be divided between the shareholders and the men. Sir Christopher, at his own risk, has given orders for twelve steamers to be built at these yards.

UNITED STATES' PROSPERITY.

REMARKABLE RECOVERY IN 1908.

Business and trade conditions in the United States show a rapid recovery from the depression of the latter part of 1907—a depression which was chiefly a money panic, but which necessarily was reflected in the industries, and therefore in commerce. The causes of this panic were admirably stated by Mr. Seymour Bell, the British commercial agent in the United States, in his letter to the British Government presented in Parliament in the early part of the present year, in which he said:

"The panic is entirely financial; it has, it is true, brought about a widespread suspension of trade and industry, but there has been no throwing on the market of merchandise at ruinous prices. The manufacturers proceeded to curtail the supply and thus reduce such chances as there might have been of glutting the market; and the farmers, who form the backbone of American prosperity, have not been affected by the financial situation, but have had nine years of almost uninterrupted prosperity; their buying power is high, and the towns dependent upon them will remain prosperous."

This analysis by Mr. Bell of the situation, made early in the year 1908, has been fully justified by more recent events. The banks and other financial establishments have resumed their activities; the manufacturers have steadily increased their output until a large proportion of them have now reached their normal rate of production, and some are running overtime. The crops are excellent and prices high, and, as a consequence, the common carriers, whether railways or steamships, are finding a steady increase in the demands upon them.

The August report of the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labour shows that practically all of the car service associations, whose reports cover car operations in all sections of the country, show a marked improvement in the number of cars in operation in August when compared with the immediately preceding months, though still about 20 per cent. below the figures for the corresponding month of last year.

Receipts of live-stock at the principal interior markets during August, 1908, show a slight gain over those of the preceding month, and also a larger total than in the corresponding month of last year; while receipts of grain at the principal interior markets show a slight decline in quantity, but an advance in prices, both at the interior markets and at the point of exportation.

Wheat exported in August averaged 1 dol. per bushel, against 90 cents per bushel in the corresponding month of last year; corn, 82·6 cents per bushel, against 61·3 cents per bushel last year; while in certain cases meat shows a slight increase, and in others a slight decline in price. As a result of these conditions of continued high prices and continued demand for the products of the farm, there has come to the farmers, as Mr. Bell stated in the above quotation from his excellent report, "a high buying power, and prosperity for the section of the country dependent upon them."

The latest report on conditions of the national banks of the country, issued in August but covering conditions down to July 15th, shows a larger amount of capital, a larger surplus fund, a larger amount of banknotes, and larger deposits than for the corresponding period of last year—a period prior to the beginning of the money panic, which did not make its appearance until about the month of October. In loans and discounts, which are a measure of industrial and business activity, the total for July, 1908, was but slightly below that of August, 1907, having been in July, 1908, 4,615 million dols., and in August, 1907, 4,678 million dols.

Even the savings banks, which were expected to show more clearly the effect of the period of depression which affected to a greater or less extent trade and industry, show an increase of 165 million dols. in deposits over those of last year, a statement just issued by the Comptroller of the Currency showing the aggregate of savings deposits in the United States at 3,660 million dols., against 3,495 million dols. in 1907.

As to conditions in the manufactures and industries, these can only be judged from current reports published in newspapers and by certain statistical records indicative of industrial activity or otherwise. Current reports from various parts of the country indicate that a large proportion of the manufacturing establishments are now running on full time, and in some cases overtime, and that the proportion idle is very small. The census of manufactures, which gives definite figures for certain years, only occurs quinquennially, and therefore there are no actual figures of employment, consumption, or production with which to compare present conditions with those of a year ago.

There are, however, certain available and down-to-date figures having such a close relation to industrial activities as to justify an estimate of present conditions based thereon. These definite figures, which have a distinct relation to industrial activity, are those of imports of manufacturers' materials.

The total value of material imported into the United States for use in manufacturing amounted in the fiscal year 1907—a period of normal conditions—to ¾ billion dols., against a little more than ½ billion dols. ten years earlier; and a comparison of the importations of manufacturers' materials at the present time with those of a year ago, when the manufacturers were making their highest record, presumably gives a fair basis from which to draw conclusions regarding present industrial conditions.

This comparison of present importation of manufacturers' materials with that of the corresponding period of last year has just been made by the Bureau of Statistics, which finds that of most of the articles imported for manufacturing, the quantity imported in August, 1908, was actually greater than in August, 1907.

When it is remembered that August, 1907, formed part of a period of unexampled industrial activity, the fact that the quantity of manufacturers' materials imported in August,

1908, equals, and in many cases surpasses, that of August, 1907, suggests that industrial conditions at the present time are not as seriously affected as might have been expected as a result of the financial and general business depression extending from October, 1907, to the middle of the present year.

This statement of the Bureau of Statistics shows that the quantities of wool, silk, india-rubber, hides, and skins, and tobacco imported for manufacturing are, in each case, greater in August, 1908, than in August, 1907; while, of the other principal articles imported for use in manufacturing, including fibres, cotton, and lumber, the quantity imported in August, 1908, is but slightly below that of August, 1907; and these nine articles form more than 75 per cent. in value of the total importations for use in manufacturing.

Another interesting feature is the fact that in practically all of these articles the prices at which they are being imported are much below those of a year ago, and this fall in prices accounts in part, at least, for the fact that the stated value of manufacturers' materials imported in August, 1908, is still below that of August, 1907, despite the fact that in many cases the quantity imported exceeds that of the corresponding date at which the value was less than in 1907.

A comparison of business conditions in the country during that portion of the year 1908 for which records are available with the average of the past years shows that the depression has not been as serious as might have been expected from the developments of last autumn. The "Wall Street Journal," a standard publication, shows in a recent issue that the bank clearings of the United States for the first seven months of the year 1908 amounted to 71¼ billion dols., against an annual average of 78 billion dols. for the five years ending with 1907; the railroad earnings (of 140 roads) for six months of 1908, 864 million dols., against an average of 846 million dols. for a corresponding period in the five years ending with 1907; and the earnings of the United States Steel Corporation, 105 million dols., against an annual average of 121 million dols. during the past seven years.

Commercially, the latest records covering the eight months ending with August, show a decline in exports of domestic merchandise of 8·6 per cent., and in imports of 30 per cent., the actual figures being: Domestic exports in the eight months ending with August, 1908, 1,075 million dollars, against 1,176 million dols. in the corresponding months of 1907; and imports in the eight months ending with August, 1908, 700 million dols., against 1,002 million dols. in the same months of 1907.

Of this 100 million dols. of decline in exports, 27 million dols. is in foodstuffs, 29 million dols. in crude materials for use in manufacturing, 15 million dols. in manufactures for further use in manufacturing, and 29 million dols. in finished manufactures. Of the 300 million dols. of reduction in imports, 20 million dols. is in foodstuffs, 116 million dols. in crude materials for use in manufacturing, 89 million dols. in manufactures for further use in manufacturing, and 76 million dols. in manufactures ready for consumption.

A considerable part of the reduction in imports of material for use in manufacturing is due to lower prices in 1908 rather than decreased quantities, as is shown by the fact that the import price of hemp fell from 171 dols. per ton in August, 1907, to 146 dols. in August, 1908; manila, from 196 dols. per ton to 123 dols. per ton; sisal grass, from 152 dols. per ton to 105 dols. per ton; goatskins, from 27 cents per lb. to 23 cents per lb.; hides of cattle, from 14·6 cents per lb. to 12 cents per lb.; india-rubber, from 67·4 cents per lb. to 57·5 cents; raw silk, from 4 dols. 60 cents per lb. to 3 dols. 38 cents; pig-tin, from 36·7 cents per lb. to 28·5 cents per lb.; and clothing wool, from 26 cents per lb. to 17·8 cents; while the fall in prices of manufactures is an important if not the principal, factor in the reduction in value of manufactures exported.

As to the effect upon home consumption of the marked decline in immigration and unusually heavy emigration of persons of foreign birth, this would be scarcely appreciable in a group of 87 million people, in view of the fact that the total inward alien movement during the twelve months ending with June 30th, 1908, was 925,000, and the total outward alien movement 715,000, making the net increase to the population by immigration a little over 200,000. The very latest reports of the Bureau of Immigration show a turn in the tide, and that the August arrivals of persons of foreign birth now again exceed the departure of persons of that class.

As to the future, indications seem to point to an early return to normal conditions. Crops are good, prices of farm products high, and therefore the consuming power of the great agricultural population quite normal; while the lower prices for manufacturers' materials and the increased importation of such materials seem to justify the belief that the manufacturing industries will soon resume their usual activities and that with the termination of the disquieting influences which always accompany a presidential election the depression which characterised last year may be expected to disappear.

O. P. Austin

(Of the U.S. Bureau of Statistics and Department of Commerce).

ARMENIA.

Two mixed Commissions are to be appointed to inquire into the grievances of the Armenian population. In reply to Armenian delegates, who demanded the restoration to their lands of some 50,000 Armenians, dispossessed by Kurds at the time of the massacres, the Grand Vizier has replied that such a measure would only cause fresh strife, and substitute a Kurdish for an Armenian question. He intends, however, to propose to the Cabinet that all Armenians who can prove their rights by title-deeds shall receive grants of Government land as far as possible equivalent to those from which they were driven, and that those who have no deeds shall be allowed to settle on Government lands on terms similar to those accorded to Moslem refugees from Crete, Bosnia, and the Caucasus. This scheme is likely to be well received by both Armenians and Turks.

THE TRADE OF JAPAN.

HER INVISIBLE REVENUE.

The total import and export trade of Japan during 1907 amounted to £94,619,022, an increase over the sum for the previous year (£86,009,190) of £8,609,832, or a trifle over 10 per cent. (says Mr. E. F. Crowe, Commercial Attaché to His Majesty's Embassy, Tokio). The following table shows the figures for the past four years :

Year.	Imports.*	Exports.*	Total.	Difference between Imports and Exports.
	£	£	£	£
1907	50,476,875	44,142,147	94,619,022	+ 6,334,728
1906	42,750,878	43,258,312	86,009,190	— 507,434
1905	49,871,589	32,823,222	82,694,811	+ 17,048,367
1904	37,902,576	32,591,216	70,493,792	+ 5,311,360
Increase in 1907 as against 1906	7,725,997	883,835	8,609,832	—
Increase in 1907 as against 1905	605,286	11,318,025	11,924,211	—
Increase in 1907 as against 1904	12,574,299	11,550,931	24,125,230	—

* In this table and throughout the report the values of exports are the original prices paid, whereas the values of imports are c.i.f.

It will be seen that both as regards imports and exports the figures are record ones, the former having passed the £50,000,000 mark for the first time.

The balance of trade, which in 1906 had been "favourable" to Japan, once more swung over, and there was an adverse showing of £6,334,728.

This adverse balance is reduced by over £1,000,000 when the following figures are taken into consideration. These have been kindly supplied by the Department of Finance, and do not appear in the ordinary trade returns:

	£
Imports :	
For Imperial Household	14,000
,, Foreign Embassies, &c., in Japan	6,000
Arms and ammunition	571,000
War vessels	30,000
Fish and marine produce brought back by Japanese fishermen from abroad	358,000
Total	£979,000

	£
Exports :	
Goods for use of Japanese Embassies, &c., abroad	36,000
Goods for foreign vessels	1,327,000
,, Japanese vessels proceeding abroad	802,000
Total	£2,165,000
Excess of exports ..	£1,186,000

In spite of this, however, the outflow of specie only amounted to £1,072,158, while in 1906, when the balance in Japan's favour totalled slightly over £500,000, the excess amount of specie which came into the country was £2,187,316. It is evident, therefore, that one cannot arrive at even an approximately true estimate of the position of Japanese finances by a mere consultation of the figures of foreign trade and the movements of specie. The gold which is kept in London, must always be borne in mind. How much this gold amounts to, and in what form it is held, are problems the answers to which are unknown to any save the Department of Finance.

There are some people who ridicule the idea that a continuous adverse balance constitutes a source of danger to Japan ; they forget that she is a country with a large foreign debt amounting at the end of 1907 to £118,000,000, and that she has practically no investments abroad, her two principal items of "invisible" revenue being obtained from her mercantile marine (which totals some 1,200,000 tons) and from foreign visitors.

Table showing the shares of the principal countries in the import and export trade of Japan during the year 1907, out of total imports £50,476,000, and total exports £44,142,000.

Countries.	Imports into Japan. 1907.	Exports from Japan. 1907.
	£	£
United Kingdom ..	11,860,684	2,291,087
India	7,614,731	1,336,071
Hong-Kong	83,771	2,480,278
Australia..	798,164	485,378
Straits Settlements	312,604	688,772
Canada	124,250	394,418
Tot. Brit. Empire	20,800,204	7,589,004
United States ..	8,237,856	13,383,225
China	6,041,534	8,740,299
Kwantung Province	899,821	2,082,570
Germany..	4,866,082	1,149,611
France	717,131	4,341,875
Corea	1,671,259	3,347,864

SECTION 9.—FINANCE.

THE NATIONAL WEALTH.

IN PROPERTY, £5,500,000,000: IN GOLD, £167,900,000.

Many estimates have been made of the national wealth. The latest is by Mr. Bernard Mallet, one of the Commissioners of Inland Revenue, who puts the national property between £5,500,000,000 and £6,100,000,000.

This is based on data from the Registrar-General's Office and the Estate-Duty Office. From the one Department Mr. Mallet got the ages of persons dying in each age-category and the corresponding number of persons living. From the other he got the average value of the estates passing in each year classified according to the ages of the deceased persons.

Mr. Coghlan pointed out that the only true way of ascertaining the wealth of those alive from the amount of wealth of those who died during a given period was to ascertain the ages of the persons dying, to divide them into categories, and find the average wealth possessed by those in each category, and to multiply the amount so ascertained by the numbers then living in each category. The result would give the total wealth of the community.

Mr. Mallet has been led to think twenty-four the best multiplier yet suggested, and to place the estimated value of the national property somewhere between, in round numbers, £5,500,000,000 and £6,100,000,000.

RENT ROLL.

The estimated rental of land and buildings in England and Wales in 1905–6, according to the Local Government Board, is:

County of London ..	£53,196,000
County Boroughs ..	63,281,000
Other areas	138,409,000
	£254,886,000

In the previous year the estimated rental had been £248,426,000, so that there was an increase in twelve months of over six millions, or 2·6 per cent. In the same time the rateable value increased from £202,858,000 to £207,067,000, or 2·1 per cent. Viewed over a period of five years, the growth of both the rental and the rateable value of the country has been very great indeed. This is best shown by setting out the figures:

Increase.

England and Wales:
Estimate rental, £30,384,000, or 13·5 per cent.
Rateable value, £20,584,000, or 11·0 per cent.

County of London:
Estimated rental, £5,300,000, or 11·1 per cent.
Rateable value, £4,046,000, or 10·2 per cent.

HOUSE RENTS.

Here are some figures which throw light on the housing problem. They show the small proportion of big houses as compared with small houses, or (as the House Duty puts it), between houses under £20 in annual value which don't pay house duty, and houses over £20, which do pay duty.

There are in Great Britain **1,446,481 private dwelling houses over £20 in value, and with a total value of £65,681,722.**

There are also in Great Britain **6,128,052 houses under £20 in value, and with a total value of £60,060,804.**

It will be seen that in total value there is little difference between these two groups: but a rough calculation will show how great are the inequalities of housing accommodation between the two groups, and what a large proportion of the population live in small houses of under £20 in value.

GOLD IN CIRCULATION.

Various estimates have from time to time been made as to the amount of gold in circulation in the United Kingdom (says a writer in the "Quarterly Review"), the most important being as shown in the following table:

		£
Mr. Newmarch's estimate, 1856		75,000,000
Mr. Jevons' estimate, 1868 (under)		80,000,000
Mr. Inglis Palgrave's estimate, 1883 (a wide limit).		110,000,000
The Royal Mint's estimate, 1888		102,500,000
The Chancellor of the Exchequer's estimate, 1892.		90,000,000
The Royal Mint's estimate, 1895:		
In active circulation.	£62,500,000	
In reserves held by banks.	30,000,000	92,500,000
The Royal Mint's estimate, 1903—in active circulation.		63,500,000
Estimate of the Deputy-Master of the Royal Mint, 1908:		
In active circulation.	£84,000,000	
In banks	32,000,000	
		116,000,000

The approximate stock of money in the United Kingdom is as stated hereunder:

Gold coin:		
In circulation ..	£84,000,000	
In banks (say) ..	32,000,000	
		116,000,000
Bank of England and other notes (uncovered paper).		28,900,000
Silver coin:		
In circulation	£18,000,000	
In banks	5,000,000	
		23,000,000
Total		167,900,000

THE FIRST CHARGE.

"I do, without fear of misrepresentation, say that the first charge on the great natural resources of this country ought to be the maintenance above want of all those who are giving their labour and brain and muscle to its cultivation and development."—Mr. Lloyd-George, Oct. 1st, 1908.

THE NATIONAL PURSE.

WHAT WE GET: WHAT WE SPEND: WHAT WE OWE.

The main items of the nation's finance are these, that in 1907–8 **we received into the National Exchequer £156,537,690**, and that **we had to pay out of it £151,812,094.** Then at the end of the financial year 1907–8 we had on our shoulders **a National Debt of £762,326,051.**

The details of all these matters are set out in the following paragraphs. They show:

(1) How the money is raised.
(2) How it is expended.
(3) Our Revenue and Expenditure for the years 1893–1908.
(4) The National Debt and the National assets.

WHERE WE GET OUR MONEY.

Here are the details of the Imperial Revenue, showing the various ways in which the nation raised money for its purposes in 1907–8.

Items.	1907–8.
Customs	32,490,000
Excise	35,720,000
Estate, &c., Duties	19,070,000
Stamps (exclusive of Fee and Patent stamps).	7,970,000
Land Tax	730,000
House Duty	1,960,000
Property and Income Tax ..	32,380,000
Total Inland Revenue	97,830,000
Post Office	17,880,000
Telegraph Service	4,420,000
Crown Lands (net receipts)	520,000
Receipts from Suez Canal Shares and Sundry Loans.	1,189,412
Fee and Patent Stamps	1,024,000
Receipts by Civil Departments, &c.	1,184,278
Total revenue	156,537,690

The Customs revenue was raised in 1907–8

	£
Coffee ..	183,624
Currants, &c.	456,492
Spirits ..	4,133,024
Sugar ..	6,707,809
Tea	5,807,947
Tobacco ..	13,739,378
Wine	1,177,494
Articles ..	373,244
	2,982
Total	32,581,994

The Excise revenue was raised thus **1907–8:**

	£
Beer	13,116,965
Spirits	17,705,793
Chicory	761
Glucose	134,511
Coffee mixture	1,934
Railways	345,061
Licences	4,412,578
Other receipts	6,982
Total	35,724,585

The Estate Duties were raised thus in 1907–8:

	£
Probate Duty	56,111
Estate Duty	14,359,587
Legacy, Succession, and Corporation Duties.	4,692,558
Total	19,108,256

HOW THE MONEY IS SPENT.

Here are the details of the Imperial Expenditure, showing the various ways in which the nation spent its money in 1907–8:

Items.	1907–8.
National Debt Services.	
Inside the Permanent or Fixed Annual Charge:	
Interest of Funded Debt	15,773,533
Terminable Annuities	3,596,992
Interest of Unfounded Debt ..	1,584,074
Management of the Debt ..	180,107
New Sinking Fund	8,365,294
Total National Debt Services	29,500,000
Other Consolidated Fund Services:	£
Civil List	470,000
Annuities and Pensions	284,379
Salaries and Allowances	77,765
Courts of Justice	515,531
Miscellaneous Services	624,040
Payments to Local Taxation Accounts, &c.:	
Charged on the Consolidated Fund.	11,155,379
Total Consolidated Fund Services.	42,627,094
Supply Services.	
Army (including Ordnance Factories)	27,115,000
Navy	31,141,000
Miscellaneous Civil Services ..	30,180,000
Customs	947,000
Inland Revenue	2,275,000
Postal Services	17,527,000
Total Supply Services	109,185,000
Total Expenditure chargeable against Revenue.	151,812,094
Issues to meet Capital Expenditure:	£
Under Telegraph Acts, 1892 to 1907.	1,020,000
Under Naval Works Acts, 1895 to 1905.	973,000
Under Military Works Acts, 1897 to 1901.	300,000
Under Public Buildings Expenses Act, 1903.	354,000
Under Public Offices Site (Dublin) Act, 1903.	10,000
Under Cunard Agreement (Money) Act, 1904.	177,235
Total Issues to meet Capital Expenditure.	2,834,235

NATIONAL BALANCE SHEET.

Here is the National Revenue and Expenditure for a series of years 1893 to 1908. The figures show the amount of the estimated and actual Imperial Revenue and Expenditure of the United Kingdom, with the difference between the estimated and actual amounts, and the surplus or deficiency of income, in each year ended March 31st, 1893–4 to 1907–8. They are revised so as to include the Revenue which, prior to 1907–8, was assigned to local purposes and paid direct to Local Taxation Accounts.

Years ended March 31st.	Revenue. Budget Estimate.	Revenue. Receipts into the Exchequer	Revenue. More (+) or less (−) than Estimate.	Expenditure. Budget and Supplementary Estimates.	Expenditure. Issues out of the Exchequer (exclusive of Expenditure not chargeable against Revenue).	Expenditure. More (+) or less (−) than Estimates.	Surplus (+) or Deficiency (−)
	£	£				£	
1893–4	98,804,000	98,297,362	− 506,638	99,220,068	98,466,798	− 753,270	− 169,436
1894–5	101,189,000	101,697,304	+ 508,304	101,551,685	100,931,963	- 619,722	+ 765,341
1895–6	103,528,000	109,339,946	+5,811,946	105,864,496	105,130,474	− 734,022	+ 4,209,472
1896–7	108,729,000	112,198,547	+3,469,547	110,573,921	109,725,331	− 848,590	+ 2,473,216
1897–8	112,023,000	116,016,314	+3,993,314	113,871,900	112,338,304	−1,533,596	+ 3,678,010
1898–9	116,288,000	117,857,353	+1,569,353	117,993,036	117,671,396	− 321,640	+ 185,957
'99–1900	120,550,000	129,804,566	+9,254,566	144,064,823	143,687,068	− 377,755	−13,882,502
1900–1	137,151,000	140,124,310	+2,973,310	194,230,627	193,331,890	- 898,737	−53,207,580
1901–2	152,263,000	152,712,089	+ 449,089	206,651,259	205,236,305	- 1,414,954	−52,524,216
1902–3	161,894,000	161,319,071	− 574,929	195,138,828	194,251,081	- 887,747	−32,932,010
1903–4	154,052,000	151,340,652	−2,711,348	158,224,446	156,756,209	- 1,468,237	− 5,415,557
1904–5	153,086,000	153,182,782	+ 96,782	152,776,994	151,768,875	- 1,008,119	+ 1,413,907
1905–6	152,210,000	153,878,865	+1,668,865	151,960,528	150,413,245	- 1,547,283	+ 3,465,620
1906–7	152,590,000	155,036,486	+2,446,486	152,636,443	149,637,664	- 2,998,779	+ 5,398,822
1907–8	152,835,000	156,537,690	+3,702,699	153,444,231	151,812,094	- 1,632,137	+ 4,725,596

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

The National Debt, or the Gross Liabilities of the State, in 1908, were £762,326,051. Against this were **assets:**

	£
Suez Canal	31,055,000
Miscellaneous	4,418,901
Bank Balances	8,918,962

The National Debt in the years from 1894 to 1908 was:

Year.	£	Year.	£
1894	.. 667,290,715	1902	.. 765,215,653
1895	.. 659,001,552	1903	.. 798,349,190
1896	.. 652,286,366	1904	.. 794,498,100
1897	.. 645,171,525	1905	.. 796,736,491
1898	.. 638,817,507	1906	.. 788,990,187
1899	.. 635,393,734	1907	.. 779,164,704
1900	.. 638,919,932	1908	.. 762,326,051
1901	.. 703,934,349		

In his Budget speech, Mr. Asquith made **these comments on the reduction of the National Debt:**

"When people talk about the demands of democracy, I may be allowed to say that there is not a more creditable chapter in the annals of democratic finance than that which records the fact that during this year, with a passionate desire for diminution of expenditure, and for the mitigation of popular burdens, there has been the application of the enormous sum of between thirteen and fifteen millions a year out of taxation to redeem the principal of our National Debt. I do not know that there is anything like it or approaching it in the history of national finance."

As to the **future reductions,** Mr. Asquith added that he did not think the Chancellor would "be justified in asking the taxpayers of the country to continue to pay fourteen or fifteen millions a year for further reductions of debt. I think the efforts we have made, unprecedented in their character, will justify a review of the situation and the setting free of some substantial part of the Revenue which in the last three years we have applied to that purpose."

NATIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS.

Of the total sum of £94,833,000 for Imperial expenditure in 1907–8, England and Wales contributed 87·70 per cent., or £83,169,000; Scotland 10·39 per cent., or £9,853,000; and Ireland 1·91 per cent., or £1,811,000. Ireland's percentage of the population was 9·93 in 1907.

AUSTRALIAN NAVAL DEFENCE.

The estimated capital cost of the proposed new Commonwealth Naval Force is as follows: 6 destroyers, £473,500; 9 submarines, £496,000; 2 depot ships, one for destroyers and one for submarines, £308,000; total £1,277,500. Annual maintenance and depreciation, total, £186,000. Personnel: 79 officers, 1,125 men; annual cost, £160,000. Grand total—£1,623,500. This includes pay allowances, victualling, etc., and also non-effective pay, and is calculated on the assumption that pay in active service will be the same as in the Imperial Navy, and that officers and men not manning the flotilla will be serving in the Imperial fleet.

New Zealand has decided to increase its naval subsidy from £40,000 to £100,000.

MR. ASQUITH'S PENSION BUDGET.

FUNDS FOR SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

The most conspicuous feature of the Budget of 1908 was the announcement of an **Old Age Pension Scheme** to men and women over seventy years, introduced by Mr. Asquith (May 7th).

The actual figures of the **national expenditure** for 1907–8 are set out in "The National Purse" (page 246). Here are noted some of the proposed and actual changes in taxation.

For **1907 and 1908** Mr. Asquith had a **realised surplus** of £4,726,000; for **1908–9** he estimates for a **prospective surplus** of £241,000. Next year's balance sheet will be as follows:

Receipts.

		£
Ordinary Revenue (Old Basis of Taxation).		157,770,000
Net Revenue..		£157,770,000
Expenditure.		£
Estimated Expenditure		152,869,000
Old Age Pensions		1,240,000
		154.109,000
Remissions:	£	
Sugar duty	3,400,000	
Marine Insurance Policies.	20,000	3,420,000
		157,529,000
Estimated Prospective Surplus ..		241,000
Total ..		£157,770,000

The **Budget** continued the **duty on tea** at 5d. per lb., but **reduced the duty on refined sugar** from 4s. 2d. to 1s. 10d. per cwt., and on unrefined from 2s. to 10d. per cwt. It also reduced the marine insurance duties from 3d. to 1d.

It gives **power to County Councils to levy local taxation** licences, such as game, dogs, guns, carriages, armorial bearings and male servants.

Proposed Amendments to the Budget.—It was moved that the duty on tea in Ireland be reduced from 5d. per lb. to 2d. This was lost by 234 votes.

It was proposed that the duty on tea be reduced from 5d. to 3d. This was lost by 189 votes.

It was proposed that the **Income Tax be reduced from 1s. to 11d.** This was lost by 204 votes. Mr. Lloyd-George said it would cost 2¼ millions.

Funds for Social Problems.—I am not one of those who think that our Free Trade system of finance is bankrupt, and has come to the end of its resources (said Mr. Asquith, October 10th, 1908). **There is a large reservoir of possible taxation and resources which has never yet been drawn upon, or never drawn upon adequately and justly, as it might be.**

During the time that I was Chancellor of the Exchequer, **seven millions sterling of annual taxation upon coal, upon tea, upon sugar, and things which the people consumed, which enter into the real comforts and necessaries of life, was removed by legislation.** I need say little about the reforms which I had the good fortune to introduce—long delayed and often declared to be impracticable—into **the machinery of our income-tax,** by which the income-tax, which is generally represented by our Tory friends as being a shilling in the pound, is nothing at all of the kind; and as regards the earned incomes of the country, and all the smaller incomes of the country, it presses with less weight upon the taxpayer, is more evenly and equitably distributed as between the different classes of the community than at any previous time in our financial history. And by the reduction to which the Chancellor has already referred—**the reduction which I have been instrumental in making in the capital liabilities of the nation**—the reduction of over forty millions sterling, as it will turn out to be on March 31st next year, we have saved to the taxpayers of the country, in the shape of interest upon debt, a sum of considerably over one million sterling.

Quite apart from the economies in the Army and Navy, after you take the taxation which has been remitted, after you have allowed for the addition—the comparatively small addition—which we made to the upper scale of the Death Duties, and the interest saved on the National Debt, and compare things now with what they were three years ago, when we entered upon office, you will find, at any rate, **the seven millions accounted for.** They talk about our having no funds from which to pay old age pensions, we are, at any rate, so much to the good as compared with the state of things which existed when the Tory Government laid down power in the month of December, 1905.

PLEA FOR RETRENCHMENT.

A memorial, signed by 144 Members of Parliament, was presented to the Prime Minister, pleading for a reduction in the expenditure on armaments. The memorial said:

"In the Budget statement for the year 1906–7 you took a larger survey of our financial situation than is usual on these occasions; and you took it in the hope that it might impress upon the House, as it had impressed on you, a much-needed lesson. You went back ten years for your starting-point.

"**The population of the United Kingdom,** which in the middle of 1896 was 39,600,000, had risen in the middle of 1906 to 43,600,000—an increase of 10 per cent. The **national expenditure** on Imperial account had increased during the same period by £40,300,000, or 39 per cent. Of this increase, as much as £21,000,000 was to be put down to the Army and the Navy.

"In 1896–7 the numbers voted for the Army were 156,000, and the cost was £18,270,000. In 1906–7 the numbers voted were 204,000, and the cost was £29,796,000—an increase in numbers of over 30 per cent., and in cost of over 63 per cent.

"For the Navy the numbers borne in 1896–7 were 91,500, and the cost was £22,170,000. In 1906–7 the numbers were 129,000, and the cost £31,869,000—an increase in numbers of 41 per cent., and in cost of 43 per cent.

"You also alluded to the cost of the Civil Service, and said, in conclusion, with regard to the survey as a whole, that the figures appeared to you to call for no comment. They spoke with an eloquence that needed no rhetorical embroidery. In your opinion they made it the first and paramount duty of the Government to return to a more thrifty and economical administration.

"We found ourselves, first, on the accepted principle that armaments depend upon policy; and, second, on the fact that since 1903 this country has been pursuing with pre-eminent success a policy of peace. Since that year we have, under the guidance both of Lord Lansdowne and Sir Edward Grey, established relations with foreign Powers which have, by common consent, removed many of the dangers with which we were previously confronted. The burden of our complaint is that there has been no corresponding reduction in expenditure on armaments."

Sir Edward Grey and Armaments.—Here is a statement by Sir Edward Grey on the reduction of armaments: "Desirable as it was that expenditure on armaments should be reduced—desirable for every nation—one nation was helpless without the other. The Government realised, much as they wished to reduce expenditure, that our naval expenditure, in particular, was and must remain dependent upon the naval expenditure of other countries. They were ready to meet other nations in discussion if the latter would equally admit that inter-dependence. But for us our Navy was a purely defensive force, and for that reason an essential force, for if ever our naval position fell to such a point that it was unable to cope with any probable combination that might be brought against it, it would not be merely our prosperity that would be at stake, but it would be our very independence and integrity."

ARMY AND NAVY EXPENDITURE.

The total gross cost of the Army and Navy for five years was stated by Mr. Runciman in the House of Commons as follows (in million £):

Item.	1904–5	1905–6	1906–7	1907–8 (Estimated)	1908–9 (Estimated)
Army ..	36·3	32·8	32·1	30·7	30·6
Navy ..	41·4	38·3	35·9	34·7	34
	77·7	71·1	68	65·4	64·6

These figures include loans and other expenditure shown in the Civil votes.

Direct and Indirect Taxation.—The estimated tax revenue for 1908–9 is levied in the proportion of 52·8 per cent. direct taxation to 47·2 per cent. indirect taxation. The direct taxation will total £67,580,000; the indirect taxation, £60,300,000.

Revenue Contributions.—Mr. Lloyd-George says that the contributions of England, Scotland and Ireland to the revenue per head in 1907–1908 were:

England and Wales ..	£3	12	9
Scotland	£3	7	8
Ireland	£2	8	11

WORLD'S WEALTH IN SECURITIES.

The most complete investigation of the part which securities play in the wealth of civilised countries was "that begun in 1895 by the French economist, Afred Neymarck, under the auspices of the International Statistical Institute, and continued at various later dates," says a writer in the "Atlantic."

"M. Neymarck did not go far outside of organised markets for his material, so that an addition of about 10 per cent. is justified for inactive securities in order to bring his figures for 1903 into comparison with those for the United States. The figures presented by M. Neymarck for the principal countries, based upon the total issues, with slight additions made for the securities of corporations not quoted on the stock exchanges, appear in the adjoining table.

"Here, then, we have a total volume of securities, without going to Latin America and Australia, that more than equals the entire wealth of the United States. Is it any wonder that the security markets have come to represent more than ever before the pulse of economic life, and that he who contemplates doing anything to disturb those markets, even to further the ends of justice, should weigh carefully the consequences of his acts?

"That the State should intervene to establish rules for converting property into this facile form, and to protect investors alike against intentional fraud and self-deception, is natural and proper; but in the long run it is the evolution of the new system itself in the hands of those who have created it—the pioneers in industrial and financial-development—which must be depended upon to purge it of weaknesses, to give solidity, steadiness of value, and certainty to its creations, and to perfect still further one of the most potent factors in the progress of modern society."

Estimated Outstanding Securities in Europe and the United States, 1900.

Country.	Par Value of Securities Owned in dollars.	Amount per Capital in dols.
Great Britain ..	26,400,000,000	616·97
France..	19,500,000,000	500·94
Germany	10,000,000,000	177·41
Russia	5,400,000,000	41·86
Austria-Hungary	4,400,000,000	96·90
Italy	2,300,000,000	69·24
Netherlands ..	2,200,000,000	405·08
Belgium	1,400,000,000	200·42
Spain	1,300,000,000	69·82
Switzerland ..	1,100,000,000	331·78
Denmark	600,000,000	226·69
Sweden and others	400,000,000	7·76
Total Europe ..	75,000,000,000	172·70
United States, 1905	34,514,351,382	414·54
Japan, 1905 ..	1,563,412,951	29·70
Aggregate ..	111,077,764,333	196·17

THE PROBLEM OF THE SUPER-TAX.

OTHER PEOPLE'S MONEY IN 1908.

The Budget estimate of the receipt from the Death Duties in the whole of the financial year which will end on March 31st, 1909, was £19,500,000, at the rate of £375,000 per week; but the actual receipt for the first half of the financial year (April 1st to September 30th, 1908) was only £8,650,000, at the rate of £332,615 per week, whereas the receipt during the corresponding period of 1907 was £9,700,000.

The decline of more than a million in the revenue from this source in the half year of 1908, when the higher rate of Duties and the super-taxes were in full operation, as compared with the first half of the previous financial year, when they were not yet fully operative, is noteworthy.

In order to justify the Budget estimate the yield of the Death Duties during the remaining half of the financial year ending March 31st, 1909, must be £10,850,000, or £2,200,000 more than in the first half year. But the actual receipt from the Death Duties has since 1894 usually exceeded the Budget estimate. Even when, in 1907–08, the first three-quarters of the year showed a falling-off of three-quarters of a million and almost up to the end of the year it seemed most probable that there would be a deficit, there was at last a surplus of £373,000, because in the third week of the last month of the financial year the receipts from the Death Duties was £997,000, of which nearly half was derived from one rich estate.

But history does not always repeat itself, and it may well be supposed that the Chancellor of the Exchequer is watching with some anxiety the effect of the higher rate of Death Duties and the super-taxes imposed by the Finance Act of 1907.

It is possible, under the existing scale of duties and super-taxes, that one-fourth of a very rich man's wealth may be claimed at his death by the State. This is a much larger proportion than is now gathered from property passing at death in any other country. Hitherto the very rich estates in this country have been those among which apparently there has been but little attempt to evade the Duties, although there have been two or three noteworthy instances of evasion or avoidance which show how easily a man, with forethought, may put the bulk of his wealth out of the reach of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

In the Australian Colonies the maximum charge is 10 per cent. but this rate which is imposed in the United Kingdom only on estates exceeding £1,000,000 each, is levied in New South Wales and Tasmania on estates over £100,000 each; in Western Australia on estates over £50,000 each; and in Victoria, Queensland and New Zealand on estates over £20,000 each; but in the Dominion of New Zealand an additional charge of 3 per cent. is made on property left to a stranger in blood other than an adopted child.

In New Zealand property left by a husband to his wife or by a wife to her husband is exempt from duty; and in Queensland any estate which passes to wife or husband or lineal issue is charged at a half rate. In New South Wales, estate under the value of £30,000, which passes to the widow, children or grandchildren of the deceased, is liable only to one half of the schedule rate. But in Tasmania, where the charge on estates exceeding £20,000 and not exceeding £100,000 is 5 per cent., property left to a brother or sister, or a child of a brother or sister, is charged with a duty of double the scheduled rates, but in no case exceeding 10 per cent.; and in Queensland strangers in blood pay double rates, but not more than 10 per cent.

The New South Wales graduation is very close and there are 37 rates of duty from 2 per cent. on not exceeding £5,000 by graduations of one-fifth of 1 per cent. up to 5 per cent. on £22,000, 6 per cent. on £32,000, 7 per cent. on £41,000, 8 per cent. on £64,000, 9 per cent. on £84,000, and 9½ per cent. on £96,000. Victoria has 33 rates, and charges 5 per cent. on £3,500, 6 per cent. on £6,000, and 9 per cent. on £20,000. New Zealand has only 4 rates of charges, from 2½ per cent. on £1,000 and 3½ per cent. on £5,000 up to 7 per cent. on £20,000, and 10 per cent. above that amount. Tasmania has 6 rates, from 2 per cent. on £1,000 and 2½ per cent. on £2,000 to 3 per cent. on £5,000 and 4 per cent. on £20,000, with 5 per cent. up to £100,000, and 10 per cent. over that amount. Western Australia has 10 rates, from 1 per cent. on not exceeding £1,000 and 2 per cent. on £3,500, with 5 per cent. on £10,000, 6 per cent. on £15,000, 7 per cent. on £20,000, 8 per cent. on £30,000, and 9 per cent. on not exceeding £50,000, with 10 per cent. over that amount. **In Queensland a bequest for educational or charitable purposes is exempt from duty.**

In France very careful graduation is made, and the duty is not only charged on the amount inherited instead of on the total value of the estate, but there are seven variations in the rate of Duty according to the degree of relationship or of no relationship, and the Duty is not charged at a uniform rate on the whole inheritance, but at varying rates, so that the highest Duty is charged only on such portion of the inheritance as exceeds a certain sum.

The rate of duty in France on 50,000,000 fr. (£2,000,000) varies from 4½ per cent. to heirs in the direct line up to 20 per cent. to strangers in blood, and over 50,000,000 fr. from 5 per cent. in the direct line to 20½ per cent. on the inheritance of strangers.

In the Colonies estates over £100,000 each appear to be few. In New South Wales during the year ended June 30th, 1906, there were only six of such estates, with a total of £1,650,546, and the aggregate value of the 2,802 estates brought into account in that year was £6,066,182, with a total receipt of duty of £290,729. Thus there is no general standard of the amount which the State is entitled to take from the dead man's pouch on its way to his heirs.

There was a time when the sovereign or overlord claimed everything, and there are now few countries in which the State does not claim something; but it is, of course, the duty of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to be careful not to strain taxation to the breaking-point or even to the point at which evasion and avoidance may find excuse.

Comparative figures for nine years past (the financial year ending on March 31st) are as follows:

Year.	No. of Estates.	Duties Received (in thousands of £)	Capital Assessed (in thousands of £)
1899–1900 ..	67,338	18,409	292,814
1900–1901 ..	64,423	16,721	264,514
1901–1902 ..	63,140	18,513	288,860
1902–1903 ..	63,929	17,013	270,473
1903–1904 ..	63,457	17,326	264,118
1904–1905 ..	63,918	17,258	265,103
1905–1906 ..	62,845	17,344	272,172
1906–1907 ..	66,082	18,958	298,460
1907–1908 ..	67,533	19,108	282,294
	582,665	161,550	2,498,808

During the financial year 1907–1908 the higher scale of Duties and the new super-tax imposed by the Finance Act of 1907 were operative on the estates of persons who had died after April 18th. 1907. The Budget estimate of 1907 provided for a receipt from this source in 1907–1908 of £600,000, and in after years of £1,200,000, but this seemed to be quite a moderate estimate which, however, during the first half of the financial year, 1908–1909, has not apparently been realised.

MILLIONAIRES' ESTATES

The number of estates over a million pounds each reported in the DAILY MAIL YEAR BOOK has been:

Year.	Estates.	Aggregate Value.
		£
1900	9	19,032,695
1901	8	10,571,235
1902	5	10,073,278
1903	5	7,732,172
1904	3	4,795,169
1905	3	4,565,188
1906	13	21,785,455
1907	6	9,736,380
1908	6	11,309,820
	58	£99,591,392

Under the Finance Act of 1907 estates of £150,000 to £250,000 are now charged 7 per cent. instead of 6½ per cent. as formerly; £250,000 to £500,000 pay 8 per cent. instead of 7 per cent.; £500,000 to £750,000 pay 9 per cent. instead of 7½ per cent.; and from £750,000 to £1,000,000 pay 10 per cent. instead of 7½ per cent. Estates over £1,000,000 pay 10 per cent. on the first million, and a super-tax from 11 per cent. to 15 per cent. on the excess up to three millions.

Appended is a list of estates over £1,000,000 each in gross value upon which Death Duties were levied in the ten months to October last (1908):

Mrs. Enriqueta Augustine Rylands, of Longford Hall, Lancs., widow of Mr. John Rylands, Manchester, manufacturer	3,448,692
John Stefanovich Schilizzi (68), of Schilizzi Brothers, of Austin Friars, Greek merchants	2,114,574
Stewart Clark (77), of J. & P. Coats, Ltd., thread manufacturer	1,947,281
Henri Louis Bischoffsheim (79), of Bischoffsheim and Goldschmidt, financier	1,613,386
Spencer Compton, 8th Duke of Devonshire (74)	1,164,960
William Todd Lithgow (53), of Port Glasgow, shipbuilder	1,020,925
	£11,309,820

Mrs. Rylands, who probably had a larger fortune at her own absolute disposal than any other lady in the United Kingdom, left about half a million for charitable purposes. The whole of the estate which passed on the death of the Duke of Devonshire was probably about £3,000,000 in value, but the Inland Revenue Reports and Accounts do not give the names and amounts in respect of settled estate, and they do not always give the value of real estate and estate abroad. Mr. Stewart Clark appears to have left estate in England of large value, in addition to other estate valued, as stated above, at £1,947,281.

Estates between £500,000 and £1,000,000 were those of

	£.
Charles Henry, 1st Baron Nunburnholme (73)	988,368
Adrian Louis, Marquess of Linlithgow (47)	921,000
Frederick Arthur, 16th Earl of Derby (67)	917,350
William John Evelyn (86), of Wotton and Deptford	707,712
Colonel Richard Pilkington (67), of Pilkington Bros., Ltd.	602,858
John Campbell White, 1st Baron Overtoun (64)	689,022
Gustavus Russell, 8th Viscount Boyne (76)	668,762
Sir Massey Lopes, 3rd Bart. (80) ..	655,988
Alfred George Schiff (68), of Throgmorton Street, stockbroker	576,709
Count Melchoir Gurowski de Wezele	566,235
Ebenezer Bird Foster (69), of Cambridge, banker	562,838
Henry Frederick Swan (65), of Northumberland, shipbuilder ..	558,287
Henry Lebus (55), cabinet-maker ..	506,305
	£9,011,512

The whole of the estate, including settled estate, which passed on the death of the late Earl of Derby was probably about £2,750,000 in value. The property which passed at the death of Mr. Evelyn, Lord Overtoun, Lord Boyne, and Lord Linlithgow, was in each case probably more than a million in value. The average age of the four rich men in the first schedule is a little over 70 years, and of those in the second schedule very nearly 69 years, which is a little below the average of former years.

FINANCE AND THRIFT.

INCOME TAX.

The private income which comes under the review of the Inland Revenue Department for the purposes of the Income Tax was, in 1906–7, no less than £943,702,014, whereas in 1892–3 it was only £679,400,517. The gross incomes for the three countries were:

England ..	£816,854,364
Scotland ..	88,749,171
Ireland	38,098,479

This income is ranged under five schedules, and the figures for the United Kingdom (1906–7) are:

A. Ownership of lands and houses	£263,741,544
B. Occupation of lands	17,436,832
C. Securities..	46,722,274
D. Business concerns, professions	518,669,823
E. Salaries of officials..	97,131,541

The Income Tax was levied as follows in the years named:

	s.	d.		s.	d.
1894–5..		8	1900–1.. ..	1	0
1895–6..		8	1901–2.. ..	1	2
1896–7..		8	1902–3.. ..	1	3
1897–8..		8	1903–4.. ..		11
1899–1900		8	1904–8.. ..	1	0

In 1907–8 the tax was reduced to 9d. in the £ in respect of earned income, when that income does not exceed £2,000.

Income Tax. was paid in 1906–7 on £640,048,238, and produced £32,002,412 at 1s. in the £. **Each penny of the tax** produced £2,666,867, the highest amount on record.

SALARIES OF OFFICIALS.

The salaries of officials which paid income-tax duty in 1906–7 were as follows:

Government officials	£23,600,537
Corporation and public company officials	£73,531,004

It is interesting to watch the growth of these items. In 1892–3 the Government officials' income was only £18,264,368, about 25 per cent below the present amount.

The corporation and public company officials income in 1892–3 was £33,319,038, less than half the present amount.

BANKERS CLEARING HOUSE.

Some indication of business activity is always afforded by the amount of money cleared at the **London Bankers Clearing House.**

	Million.
1904	£10,564
1905	£12,288
1906	£12,711
1907	£12,730

Bank of England.—The Bank of England at the end of December had notes in circulation to the extent of £29,295,947, and deposits of £50,509,467—a **total liability** of £79,805,414 against **assets** of £79,354,930.

BANK RATE.

The Bank Rate in 1893 was, on the average, 3½ per cent.; in 1903, 3¾; on Nov. 16, 1908, 2½.

SAVINGS BANKS.

The Post Office Savings Bank had, in 1907, some 10,692,555 **depositors.** And to them £157,500,077 was due—an average of £14 14s.7d.

It is interesting to note that the average due to depositors was in Ireland £20 2s. 7d. In England and Wales it is £14 10s. 8d., and in Scotland £12 16s. 1d.

Trustee Savings Banks.—The amount due to depositors in trustee savings banks in 1907 was £52,153,595—an average of £20 5s. 3d. per depositors.

PROVIDENT SOCIETIES.

There are 2,268 industrial and provident societies in the United Kingdom, with 2,351,686 members, and a share capital of £30,887,195. These include the co-operative societies. They sold goods to the value of £100,312,614 in 1906, and had £14,978,587 due to depositors and other creditors.

BUILDING SOCIETIES.

In 1904, incorporated building societies in the United Kingdom had £55,894,058 of liabilities, and assets to the same amount in 1906.

The unincorporated societies, 60 in number, had assets to the value of £16,364,370.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES.

There are 5,265 **joint-stock companies** registered in the United Kingdom. They have a nominal share capital of £137,907,836.

There are also 43,038 **registered companies** in the United Kingdom, with a capital of £2,061,010,586.

LIFE ASSURANCE.

The Life Assurance Companies of the United Kingdom have a **paid up capital** of £11,808,693; life and **annuity funds** of £306,443,947; **fire and marine funds** of £15,102,291, and **reserve funds** of £4,088,004, and a **profit and loss** balance of £3,743,721.

Industrial life assurance companies have a paid-up capital of £2,303,284; life and annuity funds of £34,351,312, and reserve funds of £1,261,882.

BANKRUPTS.

There were **4,111 bankruptcies** in England and Wales in 1907. The **liabilities** amounted to £5,673,623—this was less than in any of the last four years.

The **assets** amounted to £1,917,338.

In addition there were, in England and Wales, 3,488 **assignments and compositions** registered in 1907, with liabilities amounting to £5,214,504, and assets of £3,100,784.

Also 108 **winding-up orders** in England and Wales, with liabilities of £1,300,282, and assets of £1,148,178.

CONSOLS.

Consols in 1893 were 98½; in 1903 they were 90¾; in 1907 they were 84¼; on Nov. 13, 1908, they were 84¾.

THE MUNICIPAL PURSE.

HOW RATES ARE RAISED AND SPENT.

The Municipal Expenditure of the three Kingdoms exceeds the Imperial Expenditure. Here are totals of each for the three latest available years :

Year.	Municipal.	Imperial.
	£	£
1903–4	153,000,000	156,000,000
1904–5	163,000,000	151,000,000
1905–6	162,000,000	150,413,245

These figures emphasise in a convincing way how important is a wise administration of local finance.

The latest year for which figures are available for contrasting in detail municipal receipts and expenditure is the year 1904–5, though the totals for 1905–6 are available.

This table shows the detail for 1904–5 of the municipal expenditure for the United Kingdom :

Spending Authorities.	1904–5.
By Unions and Parishes in relief to the poor	17,066,898
All other parochial expenditure payable out of Poor Rates, and from loans	3,162,789
By Parish Councils (Scotland) other than above	13,585
By Rural District Councils (Ireland) other than above	598,787
By Parish Councils and Parish Meetings (England and Wales)	178,762
By School Boards	3,658,315
By Rural District Councils (England and Wales)	4,313,726
By Town and Municipal Authorities for police, sanitary, and other public works, &c... ..	106,898,643
By County Authorities for police, lunatic asylums, &c., by Turnpike Trusts, by Bridge and Ferry Trustees (England and Wales)	18,775,604
By Drainage and Embankment Authorities	535,023
By Burial Boards	640,412
From Church and Ecclesiastical Rates	59,073
By Harbour Authorities	7,466,763
By Other Authorities	241,575
Total expenditure	163,618,955

Outstanding [illegible].—Here are the figures of the outstanding loans and annuities of local authorities in the United Kingdom for the last four years :

1902–3	£441,596,000
1903–4	470,534,000
1904–5	544,714,000
1905–6	564,645,000

The figures for 1905–6 include £47,438,852 in respect of loans by the Metropolitan Water Board.

This table shows the detail for 1904–5 of the municipal receipts for the United Kingdom :

Sources of Receipts.	1904–5.
From sources other than loans	
Rates, water undertakings, repayments on account of private improvements executed by local authorities ..	71,786,385
Government contributions	23,314,239
Tolls, dues, and duties ..	5,781,825
Gas undertakings	8,805,452
Electric light undertakings	3,002,014
Tramways and light railways	6,361,099
Rents, interest, &c. ..	3,355,406
Sales of property	625,739
Fees, fines, penalties, and licences	1,396,833
Miscellaneous	5,600,236
From loans	38,315,527
Total receipts	168,344,755

HOW RATES ARE RAISED.

£58,255,544 was raised in England and Wales in 1905–6, by local authorities by means of rates. How the rates have increased in total is shown by the tables below ; but the rateable value assessed has also vastly increased.

Year.	Rates.	Rateable Value for Poor Rate.
	Thousand £	Thousand £
1896–7	37,542	165,990
1897–8	37,695	168,664
1898–9	38,602	172,065
1899–0	40,774	175,622
1900–1	42,993	180,406
1901–2	46,438	186,562
1902–3	50,328	191,106
1903–4	52,941	194,716
1904–5	56,047	199,355
1905–6	58,255	202,358
1906–7	—	207,087

The House of Commons unanimously passed this Resolution on local taxation (Feb. 18th, 1908) :

"That, in the opinion of this House, the present system of local taxation and the relations between local and Imperial burdens demand the immediate attention of his Majesty's Government, with a view to a more equitable adjustment as between local and Imperial obligations." Mr Asquith agreed, saying :

"There is no use going on doling out money here and there so long as our valuation, both as between different interests and still more as between different areas in different parts of the country, is conducted, not on a uniform but on a thoroughly haphazard and inequitable system."

ABOUT LONDON'S FINANCE.

LONDON'S DEBT: RATES: RATEABLE VALUE.

Here is a table showing the expenditure of the London County Council in 1906–7 under four heads, £6,204,176 net, for which a County rate of 3s. was raised.

Items.	Expenditure.	Receipts applicable to services.	Net expenditure.	Balances increased (+) or decreased (—).	Net amount to be provided.	Agricultural rates grants.	County rate levied.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Grants	620,277	385,424	234,853	(+) 26,710	2,068,884	932	3,014,091
Old county rate services	3,618,916	911,595	2,707,321				
Revenue-producing services.	1,683,286	1,605,746	77,540	(—) 30,501	47,039		
Education services—							
Elementary ..	4,218,462	1,373,016	2,845,446	(+) 152,404	2,997,940	702	2,997,238
Higher..	635,662	296,646	339,016	(+) 102,087	441,103	—	441,103
Total ..	10,776,603	4,572,427	6,204,176	(+) 250,790	6,454,966	1,634	6,453,332

London Borough Councils' Expenditure.—The net local burden of the Metropolitan Boroughs in the year 1905–6 was £2,668,613, of which the local rates met £2,607,490.

LONDON'S DEBT.

The outstanding loans of London's local authorities, on March 31st, 1907, were as follows:

Local authorities.	Loans outstanding 31st March, 1907.
London County Council (excluding loans advanced to other authorities)	48,313,719
Metropolitan Asylums Board ..	3,322,644
Metropolitan Police (proportion)	241,408
Metropolitan Water Board (proportion)	38,413,351
Central (Unemployed) Body ..	—
City of London Corporation ..	5,854,964
Metropolitan borough councils ..	12,609,954
Guardians and sick asylum and school district managers	4,209,427
Total ..	112,995,4[illegible]7

The net liability of the London County Council on March 31st, 1908, was £49,938,130, of which £40,191,965 was for rate service and £9,746,164 for revenue producing undertakings.

LONDON'S RATEABLE VALUE.

The rateable value of the Administrative County of London in 1871 was £19,963,285. In 1908 it was £44,298,903—the gross value being £53,888,701.

Between 1871 and 1906 there was a total increase **due to new buildings** of £14,315,034, or 71·71 per cent. In the same period the **estimated increase by quinquennial** revaluation was £9,089,178, or 45·53 per cent., making a total increase between 1871 and 1906 of £23,404,212, or 117·24 per cent.

The measure of rateability is the annual value of property, and the object of the valuation system is to ascertain this value.

"Gross value," as defined by the Valuation (Metropolis) Act, 1869, is "the annual rent which a tenant might reasonably be expected, taking one year with another, to pay for an hereditament, if the tenant undertook to pay all usual tenants' rates and taxes, and tithe commutation rent charge, if any, and if the landlord undertook to bear the cost of repairs and insurance, and the other expenses, if any, necessary to maintain hereditament in a state to command that rent."

"Rateable value" is "the gross value after deducting therefrom the probable annual average cost of the repairs, insurance and other expenses as aforesaid."

"Assessable value" is "the rateable value of a parish reduced by an amount equal to one-half of the rateable value of the agricultural land in the parish," and is the basis on which central rates are charged.

LONDON'S RATES.

Here is a table which shows the **total rates raised by all the London authorities, such as the** L.C.C., the borough councils, the Corporation, etc., in the several years, and the equivalent in rates:

Year.	Total rates raised.	Equivalent rate.
	£	s. d.
1898–9 ..	10,401,441	5 8·2
1899–00 ..	11,255,412	6 0·9
1900–1 ..	11,760,005	6 3·3
1901–2 ..	12,740,836	6 5·2
1902–3 ..	13,851,615	6 10·9
1903–4 ..	13,998,959	6 10·7
1904–5 ..	14,726,154	7 2·0
1905–6 ..	14,872,342	7 1·7

L.C.C. AND LICENCES.

From January 1st, 1909, the county councils will have to collect the local taxation licences instead of the Board of Inland Revenue. To cover the expenses of so doing the Government has allotted £40,000, of which the London County Council obtains £4,150.

The number of licences issued in London County in 1907–8 was:

Carriages, 43,585; Motors, 3,871; Armorial bearings, 10,264; Male servants, 26,706; Dogs 169,657; Dealing in game, 629; Guns 3,649 Killing game, 4,132.

SECTION 10.
NAVAL AND MILITARY.

THE BRITISH NAVAL PROGRAMME.
HOW IT COMPARES WITH THE GERMAN PROGRAMME.

Unlike Germany, the British Government does not enact and carry out extensive programmes stretching over years. The only **occasion on which a programme covering several years has been voted was in 1889, on the occasion of the Naval Defence Act.** The **usual theory is that the British programme is fixed by the programmes of the next two naval Powers,** so as to maintain the standard of British superiority to any two Powers.

The British and German programmes in important ships were, 1897–1904:

	Britain.			Germany.		
	Battle-ships.			Battl ships	Armo Cruis	
1897			6			0
1898			12			12
1899			0			
1900			5			
1901			10			
1902			9			
1903			15			
1904			14†			
	26	36	71†	16		48

* 1 of these dropped in 1905. † 14 of these dropped in 1905.

Late in 1904 changes took place at the Admiralty, and in 1905 "A Statement of Policy" was issued by that body, preceded **by a Memorandum** drawn up by Lord Cawdor. It pronounced, "at the present time **strategic requirements necessitate an output of four large armoured ships annually, and unless unforeseen** contingencies arise, this **number** will not be exceeded. . . . The period of building is to be two years." This, then, fixed the British programme as four large armoured ships annually, before the German Novelle and the German Navy Act of 1908. **The actual programmes of England and Germany from 1905 to 1908 inclusive were:**

	Britain.			Germany.		
	Bat shi	Arm Crui	royers.	Battle-ships.	Armoured Cruisers.	Destroyers.
1905 ..	1	3	6	2	1	6
1906 ..	3	0	2	2	1	12
1907 ..	3	0	5	2	1	12
1908 ..	1	1	16	3	1	12
	8	4	29	9	4	42

The British Admiralty dropped in 1905 one armoured cruiser, voted by Parliament, which does not appear in the above table. In 1906 it dropped one battleship and three destroyers, which do not appear. It will be seen **that the British programmes of 1905-8 fell below what the Admiralty pronounced strategically necessary by four large armoured ships,** and provided a force numerically smaller than that laid down by a single Power in the same period, so far as concerns the most important classes of sea-going ships.

If the German twenty-years' age limit applied to the British Navy, the following would be the new ships laid down in 1908, 1909, and 1910, merely to replace obsolete units, giving an average of seven large armoured ships per annum:

Year.	Battleship Substitutes.	Large Cruiser Substitutes.
1908		Blake
1908		Blenheim
1909	Royal Sovereign	Edgar
1909	Royal Oak	Hawke
1909	Ramillies	Theseus
1909	Repulse	Endymion
1909	Revenge	Grafton
1909	Resolution	Royal Arthur
1909	Empress of India	Crescent
1909	Hood	Gibraltar
1910	Centurion	St. George
1910	Barfleur	

The advance in the annual expenditure upon the German Navy (excluding non-effective votes) **with the expenditure upon the British Navy** (including and excluding non-effective votes) **is compared in the following table:**

	Germany.	England.	
Year.	Excluding non-effective votes.	Including non-effective votes.	Excluding non-effective votes.
	Million £	Million £	Million £
1888	2·5	13	11
1898	5·7	23·7	21·5
1899	6·5	25·7	23·4
1900	7·4	30·0	27·7
1901	9·6	30·9	28·6
1902	10·0	31·0	28·7
1903	10·2	35·7	33·4
1904	10·5	36·8	34·5
1905	11·4	33·3	30·9
1906	12·4	31·8	29·4
1907	13·9	30·4	27·9
1908	16·9	31·3*	28·7*
1909	20·2		

* Arranged for comparison with earlier ye

Between 1904 and 1908 the **German expenditure increased by £6,400,000; the British** effective **expenditure decreased by £5,800,000.**

THE GERMAN NAVAL PROGRAMME.

207 MILLIONS TO BE SPENT BY 1917.

The first large German naval programme was passed by the Reichstag in 1898. It fixed the strength of the German Navy at 19 battleships (7 of which were to be built under the programme), 8 coast-defence ships, 12 large cruisers (2 to be built), and 30 small cruisers (23 to be built). The Navy Estimates were to rise gradually from £5,750,000 in 1898 to £7,370,000 in 1903. **Every battleship** was to **be replaced by a new unit in 25 years**, every large cruiser in 20, and every small one in 15 years.

A second Navy Act, further increasing the German Fleet, was passed by the Reichstag in 1900, during the Boer War. Its object, as stated in the Preamble, was to give Germany **"a fleet of such strength that, even for the mightiest naval Power, a war with her would involve such risks as to endanger its own supremacy."** The following was the **strength of the fleet as fixed by this Act**, with the additions to the German **Fleet, which were to** be completed by 1916:

Items.	Standard of Force.	Of which added by the Act.
Battleships	38	11
Large Cruisers	14	2
Small ,, ...	38	
Torpedo Craft	96	24

The strength of the **personnel was** to be raised **from** 28,000 to 59,000. Under this Act the **expenditure** on the Navy rose from £7,400,000 **in** 1900 to **£11,400,000 in 1904.**

In 1906 a **fresh Navy Act**, known as the **"Novelle,"** was passed by the Reichstag. Its **important features were these : (1) an addition of 6 large armoured cruisers to the standard fixed in 1900 ;** (2) **increase in the size and cost of all the ships to be built under the 1900 Act ;** (3) number of destroyers annually laid **down** raised from 6 to 12 ; (4) the provision **of a large sum for** building submarines ; (5) **the addition of** 6,000 officers and men to **the personnel.** From 1906 to 1909 inclusive, **2 monster battleships, 1 large armoured cruiser, 2 small cruisers and 12 destroyers were annually to be laid down,** and the estimates **were to rise** from £12,300,000 in 1906 to **£15,300,000 in 1909.**

Early in 1907 the Novelle **was** slightly **modified, the size and cost of the large armoured cruisers to be built being increased.**

At the close of 1907 a **new Navy Act** was **submitted** to the Reichstag, and passed by it **in 1908. It fixed the age at which every large German battleship must be replaced at 20 years** (5 years less than the Act of 1900 and the Novelle), and raised the annual programme and **expenditure** to the figures shown at top of **next column.** (The last column in the table shows, *for purposes of comparison*, the expenditure as fixed in 1906.)

According to Colonel Gaedke, in 1911 the programme *for* **1912 will** be revised, and the **number of large armoured ships to be laid down annually increased from 4 to 5, the** expenditure being at the same time correspondingly augmented. Thus the **figures after** 1911 **must be taken as provisional.**

	Battleships.	Armoured Cruisers.	Small Cruisers.	Destroyers.	Total Expenditure.	Expenditure as fixed in 1906.
					Million£	Million£
1908	3	1	2	12	16·6	14·3
1909	3	1	2	12	20·2	15·3
1910	3	1	2	12	22·0	15·7
1911	3	1	2	12	23·0	16·0
1912	1	1	2	12	22·4	16·2
1913	1	1	2	12	21·5	16·3
1914	1	1	2	12	20·8	16·1
1915	1	1	2	12	20·0	16·2
1916	1	1	2	12	20·4	16·2
1917	1	1	2	12	20·8	16·4
	18	10	20	120	207·7	158·7

The German Navy League is demanding that 6 large armoured cruisers **shall be laid down at** once (in 1909 and 1910); **while it has been** intimated that the German Admiralty **will ask for** an additional **vote in** 1909 **of £500,000 for** the construction **of large** submarines.

The following is **a list of German ships of the Dreadnought type now in hand, or to be laid down this year, with their probable dates of completion :**

Name.	Launched.	To be Completed.
1. Nassau .. .	March, 1908	Aug., 1909.
2. Westfalen .	July, 1908	Dec., 1909
3. Rheinland .	Sept., 1908	Spring, 1910
4. Er. Baden .	Nov., 1908	,, ,,
5. Er. Oldenburg	Ordered	Spring, 1911
6. Er. Beowulf .	,,	
7. Er. Siegfried .	,,	
8. Er. Fritjof	To be laid down in 1909	End of 1911
9. Er. Hildebrand	To be laid down in 1909	End of 1911
10. Er. Heimdall	To be laid down in 1909	End of 1911
11. Cruiser F ..	Building	Spring, 1910
12. Cruiser G ..	Ordered	Spring, 1911
13. Cruiser H ..	To be laid down, 1909	End of 1911

"Er." stands for "Ersatz," or "Substitute," replacing a ship which has reached the age-limit.

Particulars of the first 4 German Dreadnoughts will be found in the tables comparing various battleships, **opposite the Nassau. The 3 ships ordered in 1908 will, it is believed, carry 12-in. guns, be of larger size, and be fitted with turbine engines. The Nassau class** have reciprocating engines. **The cruiser "F"** *is of 18,700 tons,* **the largest cruiser yet laid** *down for any Power.* **Her Parsons turbine engines** develop **45,000 h.-p., and are to drive**

her at 25½ knots speed. She carries 12 11-in., and a number of 5·9-in. guns. It is believed that "G" and "H" will be similar. "Er. Fritjof" and "Er. Hildebrand" were ordered in October, 1908.

The position of the two navies in completed ships of the Dreadnought and Invincible types, at the end of the years 1909, 1910, and 1911, on existing programmes (though the British position at the end of 1911 may be improved if special provisions are made in the British Estimates of 1909 for laying down the new programme early in the year and rapidly completing it) will be:

Items.	Complete in December,		
	1909.	1910.	1911.
Britain:			
Dreadnoughts	5	7	8
Invincibles	3	3	4
Total	8	10	12
Germany:			
Dreadnoughts	2	4	10
Invincibles	0	1	3
Total	2	5	13

The figures for 1911 assume that the German Dreadnoughts to be laid down in 1909 will be completed in thirty months, according to the calculations used by Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons.

The new German destroyers of the 1908 programme are of 616 tons, turbine-engined, steam 30 knots or more, and carry 2 23-pounder and 2 machine guns, with 2 17·7-in. torpedo tubes. They are to be strongly built, tested in rough weather, and able to make their speed without difficulty.

A point to be noted is that the entire fighting force of the German Navy is kept as far as possible in home waters, concentrated in one large fleet, so as to give the officers constant practice in the handling of large bodies of ships. It was expressly stated in the Navy Act of 1900 that the German Navy hoped to compensate any inferiority on its part in numbers by "tactical training by evolutions in large bodies of ships."

The German organisation in time of peace is as follows:

High Sea Fleet: 16 latest battleships, 4 armoured cruisers, 6 small cruisers, 33 fully-manned destroyers (shortly to be raised to 50), and 14 reserve destroyers (to be raised to 40), which can be mobilised at a few hours' notice; torpedo inspection, 1 old battleship; gunnery inspection, 1 modern battleship, 1 modern armoured cruiser, 2 small cruisers; gunnery experiments, 1 armoured cruiser, 2 coast-defence battleships. All these are in European waters, fully manned. Outside Europe there is only one important ship, the armoured cruiser Bismarck. Thus the German force in commission in home waters is 23 modern battleships and armoured cruisers, omitting smaller and less effective craft.

In the summer of 1908 the High Sea Fleet carried out with great success a long-distance cruise to the Azores and back.

NAVIES OF THE GREAT POWERS.

THIS TABLE GIVES FULL DETAILS OF THE VARIOUS VESSELS WHICH MAKE UP THE NAVIES OF THE WORLD, THE NUMBER OF MEN WHO MAN THEM, AND THEIR COST. IT INCLUDES ALL SHIPS ACTUALLY ORDERED IN DECEMBER, 1908.

Description of Vessel, &c.	Britain.	Germany.	France.	United States.	Russia.	Italy.	Japan.
Battleships:							
1st Class (Dreadnought and Lord Nelson)	10	9	6	6	1	2	5
2nd Class	8	0	4	13	2	6	2
3rd Class..	30	20	11	9	5	2	8
4th Class (obsolescent) ..	11	4	9	3	7	3	2
Armoured Cruisers:							
Invincibles	4	2	0	0	0	0	3
Other Modern types ..	35	9	18	14	5	9	13
Cruisers (modern, with speed of 23 knots and over).	16	17	0	3	6	0	4
Old Cruisers	61	18	30	21	3	14	13
Destroyers (launched 10 years or less).	81	84	75	25	96	24	55
Torpedo Boats	47	0	154	12	37	27	58
Submarines	65	20	98	20	4	12	13
Cost: Million £	32·3	17·2	12·8	20·7	9·7	5·8	8·0
Men (peace strength).. ..	128,000	50,500	53,000	41,000	46,000	28,500	43,000
Men (Reserves)	56,700	60,000	65,000	5,000	35,000	34,000	70,000

In the classification of ships the Navy League system ("Navy League Journal," October, 1907, pp. 289–294) **is generally followed, brought up to date. No battleship is reckoned first class unless she fires a broadside of at least 5,000 lb.** The command of the sea depends upon battleships and large armoured cruisers, especially upon vessels of the new first-class and Invincible type and modern destroyers and submarines. **The fighting value of the older battleships, armoured cruisers, protected cruisers, and destroyers is fast diminishing.**

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE NAVY.

HOW THEY WILL MEET THE GERMAN PROGRAMME.

The Navy Estimates for the United Kingdom in 1908–9 are put at £32,319,500, which is an increase of £900,000 over 1907–8.

The increase is largely automatic, and includes pay increases of £150,000, pension increases of £70,000, £300,000 for cooling the magazines, £150,000 for the Cunard subsidy, coal increase of £284,000, and the annuity in repayment of the Naval Works Loan Acts of £1,264,000.

The sum devoted to new ships is £7,545,202, as against £8,100,000 last year. The new programme for the year comprises one battleship (improved "Dreadnought" class), one large armoured cruiser, six fast protected cruisers, sixteen torpedo boat destroyers, and a number of submarine boats. In his statement Lord Tweedmouth said: "This programme suffices for 1908–9; whether and to what extent it may be necessary to enlarge it next year, or in future years, must **depend upon the additions made to their naval force by foreign Powers.** His Majesty's Government have every intention of maintaining the standard of the British Navy which has hitherto been deemed necessary for the safeguarding of our national and Imperial interests."

Mr. Asquith declared that policy ought to be determined not by the opinion of experts, but by the decisions of the Cabinet, and that the finance of the Army and Navy was determined by policy. But he did not allege or admit that there was no room or need for further economies in the Army and the Navy. (March 2nd, 1908.)

Retrenchment Resolution.—On March 2nd a resolution was proposed by Mr. Murray Macdonald:

"That, in view of the continued friendly relations with foreign Powers announced in the gracious speech from the Throne, this House trusts that further reductions may be made in expenditure on armaments, and effect be given to the policy of retrenchment and reform to which the Government is pledged."

Mr. Asquith moved to omit all the words after "House," and substitute the following:

"Will support his Majesty's Ministers in such economies of naval and military expenditure as are consistent with the adequate defence of his Majesty's dominions."

Mr. Macdonald's motion was defeated by 320 to 73 (majority, 247).

The Admiralty contended that "this new programme was amply sufficient to maintain the two-Power standard."

Mr. Asquith, in reply to Mr. Balfour, said (March 10th, 1908):

"I do not think there is the faintest difference of opinion between us on two points, one of which may be said perhaps to involve the other. **The first is that we must maintain the unassailable supremacy of this country at sea;** and the next is that for that purpose the two-Power standard, as it is commonly called, whether it is a scientific formula or not, is quite a practical and workable standard. On that there is no difference of opinion. The First Lord of the Admiralty pointed out in the memorandum circulated with the Estimates that there is no difference on that point between successive Administrations.

"In dealing with the two-Power standard you must not simply compare the comparative wealth, as it were, of the various Powers in 'Dreadnoughts' and 'Invincibles.' Everybody will agree that there are other classes of battleships which must be brought into account also. I myself, from such knowledge as I have, can say that the 'Lord Nelson' and 'Agamemnon,' although they may not be put in quite the same class as the 'Dreadnought,' yet are so superior to most other battleships of other Powers, and in some respects so little inferior to the 'Dreadnought,' that they ought to weigh not a little in the balance. But the question put by Mr. Balfour is confined entirely to vessels of the 'Dreadnought' and 'Invincible' class.

"**First of all, let us see what the assumption is in regard to Germany.** Mr. Balfour's assumption is that in the month of December, perhaps in the month of November, 1911, at any rate in the last two months of 1911, Germany will be, or may be, in possession of thirteen ships of this class. That statement, of course, is based on two preliminary hypotheses. The first is that the whole of the German programme as now laid down on paper will be carried out to the letter; and next, that the German rate of construction will be such as, at any rate, to admit of the building of one of these vessels within thirty months of the date of its being laid down. If the ship takes longer than thirty months from the date of laying down to completion, then the thirteen vessels will not be there by the time the right hon. gentleman mentioned. I need not say I am not going to discuss whether those two hypotheses are or are not well founded, whether the Germans will find it possible to adhere to their programme, or to maintain this rate of construction. I think there is very grave reason, on the second point, to doubt whether they will. But let us assume it—only it must be clearly understood that it is upon those two hypotheses, and on the assumption that they are real, that the problem presents itself.

"**Let us look at the other side of the image—the British.** By the end of the year 1910, when the battleship and the cruiser which form part of the programme of this year's construction will have been completed—to put it at the latest date, by the month of January, 1911—**we shall have twelve ships of this class.** But when you come to the month of November or December, 1911, the Germans, if they have completed their programme, and are able to carry out their shipbuilding in the time suggested, will have thirteen. In other words, we should be one short. That, of course, assumes that nothing is done next year at all in the way of new construction, because the twelve vessels referred to are provided for in the programmes of the present and past years; or that, whatever is proposed to be done, vessels will be laid down at such a date that they will not be completed by the month of November or December, 1911.

"But without in any way forecasting what the shipbuilding programme for next year may be, I will say, without the faintest hesitation, that, **if we find at that time that there is a reasonable probability of the German programme**

being carried out in the way that the paper figures suggest, we should deem it our duty to provide, and we should provide, not only for a sufficient number of ships, but for such a date of laying down of such ships that at the end of 1911 the superiority of Germany, which the right hon. gentleman foreshadows, would not be an actual fact. I hope that is quite explicit. That is the policy of his Majesty's Government; it remains on record; and I think it ought to reassure the House that we do not intend in this matter to be left behind."

Mr. Asquith, on November 12th, 1908, said that the Government accepted the two-Power standard as meaning **a preponderance of 10 per cent. over the combined strength in capital ships of the two next strongest Powers.**

Sir Edward Grey says that "we have no right to complain if any foreign country chooses to spend upon its navy for its own purposes; but remember that **we also have those motives of a desire to protect our commerce and to preserve our Empire.** But, in addition to that, **we have a stronger motive for preserving our Navy than any foreign nation can have for building a navy,** and that is that upon the strength of our Navy and upon maintaining that strength unimpaired depend not only our trade and our Empire, but the very independence and life of this country. At the present time we have a Navy perfectly adequate to meet any probable combination that could be brought against us, and there is no reason why we should rush hurriedly into increased expenditure. But **when I see the great programmes of naval expenditure which are being produced in some other countries, I think it right that the attention of this country should be devoted to those programmes,** because if they are carried out in their entirety it will undoubtedly become necessary for us in the interests not only of the Empire, but for the preservation of our independence and for our own safety at home to make further increases in our own Navy." (January 15th, 1908.)

MR. HALDANE'S VIEW.

"It might take a long time to work out the new scheme completely," said Mr. Haldane at Hanley (December 16th, 1907). "It was thirty-five years before the reorganisation of the German army was worked out. Our shores were encircled by the sea and we had a great Navy, but there might come a time when it would not be so easy for us as to-day to command what was called the two-Power standard in the Navy.

"**Germany had a population of nearly sixty millions to our forty-four millions; the United States would before long have a population of 100 millions; and it would be very hard for us, with a population of forty-four millions, to maintain a two-Power standard against two nations with a combined population of 160 millions.** We might not be able in days to come to depend wholly and absolutely upon our Navy with the completeness of to-day, **and should that time arrive it would be upon the home defence forces that we should have to rest our trust.** Now, a force could not be **organised in a day, or even in a year. It took ten years to organise and bring to fruition the conception of a home defence Army, and that was why in these days of profound peace it was** right and desirable to make a resolute **effort** to put the forces of the Crown on an **efficient** and satisfactory foundation."

"A NAVY FOR SECURITY."

Mr. McKenna, First Lord of the Admiralty, speaking on October 17th, 1908, said "that our duty was to see that the Navy was as strong as was necessary for security, and, if need be, to throw in a small percentage for greater security.

"We have," he said, "remarkable evidences constantly recurring of **the presence of mind, discipline, daring, and resource of the men.** Nothing has struck me so much as the vitality of their fighting spirit. The temper of all ranks is such that we might be living to-day on the morrow of Trafalgar.

"Any maritime nation to which in war the sea routes are closed will suffer great loss, but not be brought to its knees as would be our fate, by imminent starvation. Mr. Cobden declared that he would vote 100 millions sterling rather than allow a foreign navy to be increased to a level with ours. **No responsible Minister could abate anything from Mr. Cobden's resolution.**

"The maintenance of our Empire, and our very independence itself as a nation, rest upon the supremacy of our Navy.

"**Our duty is to make sure that our Navy is strong enough to meet successfully any foe, or reasonably probable combination of foes.** The worst possible policy for us to pursue is to fall behind in our naval equipment, but the next worst policy is needlessly to make the pace in expenditure on armaments. Any rise in the general level of naval power throws a heavier burden on us than on any other individual country, and it is the height of unwisdom in us to invite foreign nations to increase their expenditure by any uncalled-for parade of our own overwhelming strength.

"Suffice it for us that we have, and mean to have, a Navy strong enough for absolute security."

NAVAL BASE AT ROSYTH.

The scheme for a naval base at Rosyth was thus defined by Lord Tweedmouth:

"**Along the whole east coast of England and Scotland we had not a dock capable of accommodating our great fighting-ships,** and the Government had decided to establish a new naval establishment in the Firth of Forth at a place called Rosyth. This, they had come to the conclusion, would be the most suitable place, and one most useful to the Navy. There they proposed to construct in the first place a graving-dock capable of taking our biggest ships, then a big basin, and quays which would accommodate twenty-two warships alongside them.

"If there were double banks provided, forty-four warships could be accommodated. Already there were considerable land defences in the Forth, and they would play a very substantial part in defence in the event of a foreign attack. It was a very serious resolution for the Government to have arrived at, but he believed it was to the advantage of the country, and he did not think that when the works were completed they would involve any very increased cost on the dockyard establishments of the country."

THE BRITISH NAVY AT A GLANCE.

1st Class Battleships ...	**10**	**Other Armoured Cruisers**	**36**	**Large Modern Torpedo Boats**	**47**
2nd Class Battleships	**8**	**1st Class Cruisers**	**21**	**Men available**	**188,000**
3rd Class Battleships ...	**30**	**2nd Class Cruisers**	**40**	**(including Reserves)**	
4th Class Battleships ..	**11**	**3rd Class Cruisers**	**16**		
Invincibles	**4**	**Modern Destroyers**... ...	**81**		

Details of the most modern and formidable battleships and armoured cruisers of the Royal Navy are given in the following tables. The names of the ships which were incomplete in December, 1908, are in italics. Particulars are also given of the distribution of the Navy.

EFFECTIVE BATTLESHIPS AND ARMOURED CRUISERS.

Name.	Tons.	Speed. Kn.	Date of Launch.	Thickest Armour.	Guns.
First-Class Battleships, 10				Ins.	
Foudroyant	20,000	22	bldg.	12	X. 12-in. Many small.
St. Vincent			1908		
Collingwood	19,250		1908	12	X. 12-in. XX. 4-in.
Vanguard			1909		
Superb					
Temeraire	18,500	21			X. 12-in. XX. 4-in.
Bellerophon					
Dreadnought	17,900		1906		X. 12-in. XXVII. small.
Lord Nelson	16,5		1906	12	IV. 12-in. X 9·2-in. XXXVII. small
Agamemnon					
Second-Class Battleships, 8 :					
Hibernia			1905		
Britannia			1904	12	
Africa			1905		IV. 12-in.
New Zealand	16,500	18½	1904		IV. 9·2-in.
Hindustan			1903		X. 6-in.
K. Edward VII.			1903	12	XXIV. small.
Dominion			1903		
Commonw'th			1903		
Third-Class Battleships, 30 :					
Queen	15,000	½	1902		
Pr. of Wales			1902		
London			1899		IV. 12-in.
Bulwark			1899		XII. 6-in.
Venerable			1899	12	XVI. 12-pr.
Formidable			1898		VI. 3-pr.
Irresistible			1898		VII. Maxims.
Implacable			1899		
Albemarle					IV. 12-in.
Duncan					XII. 6-in.
Cornwallis	14,000	19	1901		XII. 12-pr.
Exmouth					XIV. small.
Russell					
Cæsar			1896		
Hannibal			1895		
Illustrious			1896		
Jupiter			1895		IV. 12-in.
Mars		17½	1896	14	XII. 6-in.
Prince George			1895		XVI. 12-pr.
Victorious			1895		XX. small
Magnificent			1894		
Majestic			1895		
Vengeance			1899		
Albion			1898		IV. 12-in.
Glory	12,950	18¼	1899	12	XII. 6-in.
Canopus			1897		XII. 12-pr.
Goliath			1898		XIV. small.
Ocean			1898		IV. 10-in.
Triumph		20	1903	10	XIV. 7·5-in.
Swiftsure					XIV. 14-pr. X. small.

New Ships.—During the financial year, April 1908–March, 1909, the Admiralty propose to lay down: 1 battleship, 1 large armoured cruiser, 6 smaller cruisers, 16 destroyers, 5 submarines.

The amount voted for new construction is £7,547,000, a reduction of £566,000 as compared with 1907–8.

During the year 3 battleships of the Dreadnought class have been **launched, and 1 laid down. Thus, in all, the British Navy has 8 battleships of what** is known as **one-calibre** type **(from the fact that they only carry one calibre** of **heavy gun), built, building, or projected. In the** United **States 6 such** vessels **are in hand, in** Germany **9.**

The **Dreadnought type has been further criticised** during **the past year by** Sir **William White and** others, **mainly on the** ground **that it carries no** powerful **intermediate ar**tillery, **whereas the foreign** Dreadnoughts **all mount a** number **of** 6·7-in., 6-in., or 4·7-in. **guns. In the** newer British **ships of the** class, **however, the light armament has been strengthened by the substitution of 4-in. (25-pounder) guns for the 12-pounders which the Dreadnought carries.**

The most important naval event of the year was the voyage of the Prince of Wales to Canada and back for the Quebec festivities in the cruiser-battleship Indomitable.

On the return voyage she ran the distance of 1,684 miles from the Straits of Belleisle to the Fastnet (from land to land) in sixty-seven hours, arriving at Cowes on August 3rd. This gave her an ocean speed of 25·18 knots, or

Name.	Tons.	Speed. Knots.	Date of Launch.	Thickest Armour.	Guns.
Invincibles, 4:				Ins.	
New Ship ..	18,000 ?	25	1909		VIII. 12-in. Many small.
Invincible ..	17,250	25	1907		VIII. 12-in. XVI. 4-in.
Inflexible ..					
Indomitable					
Armoured Cruisers, New Type, 36					
Minotaur ..	14,600	23	1906	8	IV. 9·2-in. X. 7·5-in. Many small.
Shannon ..					
Defence					
Natal ..	13,550	22	1905	6	VI. 9·2-in. IV. 7·5-in. XXVIII. small.
Cochrane					
Achilles					
Warrior					
	13,550	22	1904	6	VI. 9·2-in. X. 6-in. XXVIII. small.
Drake .. .	14,100	23	1901	6	II. 9·2-in. XVI. 6-in. XIV. 12-pr. XII. small.
King Alfred					
Leviathan .					
Good Hope .					
Essex	9,800	23	1901	4	XIV. 6-in. X. 12-pr. XI. small.
Kent			1901		
Monmouth .			1901		
Bedford .			1901		
Cornwall .			1902		
Suffolk.. .			1903		
Berwick .			1902		
Donegal .			1902		
Lancaster .			1902		
Cumberland			1902		
Devonshire .	10,800	22½	1904	6	IV. 7·5-in. VI. 6-in. X. 12-pr. XI. small.
Hampshire .			1903		
Argyll .. .			1904		
Roxburgh .			1904		
Antrim .			1903		
Carnarvon .			1903		
Cressy .. .	12,000	21	1899	6	II. 9·2-in. XII. 6-in. XII. 12-pr. XII. small.
Aboukir .			1900		
Hogue .. .			1900		
Sutlej .. .			1899		
Euryalus .			1901		
Bacchante .			1901		

slightly in excess of anything which, up to that date, the two monster Cunarders, Lusitania and Mauretania, had done, and was a magnificent performance for a warship with all her guns and war equipment on board. During the run the Prince of Wales took a turn in the stokehold and threw six shovelfuls of coal into the furnaces. The speed from Quebec to Cowes was 21·4 knots.

The fastest run in any single day was at the rate of 26·4 knots. There is no cruiser in the world which has approached such a speed in an ocean run. During the voyage all kinds of weather were encountered, and the Indomitable proved herself an admirable sea-boat.

One of the novel features of the voyage was that throughout, owing to the powerful **wireless telegraphy** equipment with which she is fitted, she was able to **receive messages from the Admiralty.**

The object for which she and her sister-ships have been built is to deal with hostile cruisers, and in battle to compel the enemy to fight by heading him off or concentrating on the head of his line. One complete division of four Indomitables is now ready or building, while there are two divisions of Dreadnoughts in hand, each also of four ships.

The Indomitable has **turbine engines** of 41,000 horse-power, driving four screws. She can burn oil fuel in addition to coal. Her eight 12-in. guns can all be fired on either broadside, so that her armament is more powerful than that of any battleship earlier than the Dreadnought.

Some other **remarkable performances in the matter of speed** were accomplished in the naval year by ships of the Royal Navy. The ocean destroyer **Tartar** at the end of 1907 in her official trials did **35·95 knots, and thus is at present the fastest vessel in the world the speed of which has been officially tested.** The "**destroyer-smasher**" **Swift**, a vessel of 1,800 tons, in her preliminary trials steamed for some distance at **38 knots**, and is expected to do as well in actual service. Both these vessels burn oil alone, and, in consequence, can maintain their speed without imposing any effort upon the stokers. The new British **destroyers** which were laid down at the close of 1908 will be constructed to burn coal in the event of emergency, but will normally use oil, which is becoming the standard fuel for torpedo vessels in the British Navy. They will only steam 27 knots and carry one 25-pounder and three 12-pounders.

Another interesting achievement was accomplished by the **submarine flotillas** in the naval manœuvres. A number of submarine boats made a non-stop run of 400 miles without giving trouble of any kind.

The **Naval manœuvres** took place at the end of July, but the results were regarded as confidential, and the following particulars must be regarded as non-official. **Blue Fleet** (representing the German Navy), under **Admiral Lord Charles Beresford**, was stationed on the Scandinavian coast. **Red Fleet** (representing the British naval forces) was in **two sections**, each weaker than Blue Fleet, but together stronger, one part at Rosyth and the other part in the Irish Channel; and the problem was for Red to effect a junction while holding Blue in check. On July 16th war began, and from that date till the 19th the Blue Fleet was in command of the North Sea, seeing nothing of the enemy. The Red Fleet,

however, succeeded in the meanwhile in effecting its junction.

Thus **neither side gained a decided victory**, though it was surprising that a hostile fleet should have been left for sixty-two hours to work its will in the North Sea. The weather was exceedingly stormy, and this appears to have interfered with the scouting arrangements of either side; indeed, the manœuvres passed without a single encounter.

An application made after the manœuvres by the Commander-in-chief of the Channel Fleet to the Admiralty that the Blue and Red fleets might meet and carry out tactical exercises, so that officers might be given experience in handling a large fleet, was refused. At the close of the manœuvres, **Rear-Admiral Sir P. Scott**, whose relations with his Commander-in-chief were not of the happiest, owing to a signal which he had made in November, 1907 (to the effect that paint work was more in demand than gunnery), and which was censured by Lord C. Beresford as "insubordinate," was **withdrawn from the 1st Cruiser Squadron**, which forms part of the Channel Fleet, and detached with four armoured cruisers to South Africa.

No important change has been made in the British Naval dispositions during the year, though there has been further controversy concerning the alleged weakness of the Channel Fleet, which, during 1908, was constantly below its nominal strength, owing to the absence of ships repairing and refitting. After the manœuvres its battleship strength was reduced by the absence of ships for refits and repairs from fourteen to eight, and for some days even to six. There are reports to the effect that when Lord C. Beresford's period of command expires, the **Channel Fleet will be divided into** two sections: (1) A **North Sea Fleet**; (2) a **Channel Fleet**.

No progress has as yet been made towards **the construction of a dockyard at Rosyth**, and a vote of only £35,000 for the new base was included in the estimates, though the total cost will be about £3,500,000. For the new **lock at Portsmouth**, urgently needed to give safe admission to the only dock which will take the Dreadnought at that port, there was a vote of only £65,000, making a total outlay, up to April, 1909, of £75,000 on a work which is estimated to cost £940,000.

COMPARISON OF BATTLESHIPS.

Here is a table which shows for each country the total number of battleships and armoured cruisers of the new monster types now complete (December, 1908), building or sanctioned, &c. With it the value of any conjunction of two fleets may be gauged; also how the British Fleet stands compared with any two-Power Standard:

Country.	[illegible]	[illegible]
Great Britain:		
Battleships	6	?
Armoured Cruisers	1	?
Germany:		
Battleships	9	1
Armoured Cruisers	2	1
France:		
Battleships	6	0
Japan:		
Battleships	3	0
Armoured Cruisers	3	0
United States:		
Battleships	6	?
Brazil:		
Battleships	3	0
Italy:		
Battleships	2	0
	39	

The two Lord Nelsons, of which details will be found in the section devoted to the British Navy, are *not* included in the *British figures* given above.

Ships Building.—The following is a comparison, so far as the details are known, of the latest types of battleship under construction for the various Powers:

Navy.	Name of Ship.	Tonnage.	Speed. Knots.	Armament.
British ..	St. Vincent ..	19,250	22 t.	X. 12-in.; XX. 4-in.
German ..	Nassau	18,000	20	XII. 11-in.; XII. 6·7-in.
French ..	Danton	18,300	22 t.	IV. 12-in.; XII. 9·4 in.
U.S.A. ..	Florida	20,000	22 t.	X. 12-in.; XIV. 5-in.
Brazil ..	Minas Geraes ..	19,250	21	XII. 12-in.; XXII. 4·7-in.
Japan ..	A.	20,800	21 t.	XII. 12-in.; XXIV. 6-in.;
Italy	Mirabello ..	18,000	24 t.	XII. 12-in. XVIII. 4·7-in.

t. = Turbine engines.

In addition to the ships tabulated above, the **Argentine** has decided to build three battleships, probably of the Dreadnought type; and **Chili** is reported to be intending to construct two. Thus next year eight Dreadnoughts may be building for South American States. **The transfer of even three or four of these ships to a European Power would vitally affect the balance of force.**

The **Brazilian Dreadnought**, Minas Geraes, is the most powerfully armed battleship yet afloat, as she can fire ten 12-in. guns on the broadside, and eight ahead or astern, against the British St. Vincent's eight and six respectively. She has, however, armour only nine inches thick, whereas the British ship carries eleven-inch; and she has old-fashioned reciprocating engines, whereas the St. Vincent has turbine engines. The Minas Geraes has the advantage of more powerful small guns.

THE BRITISH FLEETS AND THEIR COMPOSITION.

THE BRITISH FLEET IS DIVIDED INTO THE FOLLOWING COMMANDS. THE GEOGRAPHICAL STATION OF EACH FLEET IS GIVEN.

Fleet or Squadron.	Admiral.	Battleships. Class 1	2	3	Armoured Cruisers.	Cruisers.	Destroyers.	Torpedo Boats.	Submarines.	Others.	Total.
	1. Fully Manned.										
Channel	A. Lord Chas. Beresford ..	0	8	6	0	6	24	0	0	4	48
1st Cruiser ..	R.A. C. H. Adair	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	6
Atlantic	V.A. Prince Louis of Battenberg	0	0	6	0	2	0	0	0	1	9
2nd Cruiser ..	R.A F. T. Hamilton	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	4
Mediterranean ..	V.A. Hon. Sir A. G. Curzon-Howe	0	0	6	0	4	11	0	0	2	23
3rd Cruiser ..	V.A. Sir H. D. Barry	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	4
4th Cruiser ..	R.A. F. S. Inglefield	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
China	V.A. Hon. Sir H. Lambton ..	0	0	0	4	2	6	0	0	16	28
Australia	V.A. Sir R. Poore	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	9
C. of Good Hope	V.A. Sir E. S. Poe	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
East Indies ..	R.A. Sir G. Warrender	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	3	7
West Coast of America.	.. ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Special Service ..	.. ..	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Home Fleet ..	V.A. Sir F. C. B. Bridgeman ..	2	0	3	1	7	24	20	31	5	93
5th Cruiser ..	R.A. R. S. Lowry	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	6
		2	8	21	30	37	65	20	31	33	247
	2. Partially Manned.										
Home Fleet (section with nucleus crews)		0	0	7	4	9	70	52	14	8	164
Channel Fleet (with nucleus crews)		0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	6
		2	8	28	34	46	141	72	45	41	417

A = Admiral; V.A. = Vice-Admiral; R.A. = Rear-Admiral.
The battleships are classed on the Navy League system.

The Channel Fleet is based upon Portland, and cruises on the coasts of Great Britain; the **Atlantic Fleet** is based upon Berehaven and Gibraltar, and cruises from the Straits of Gibraltar to the west coast of Ireland; the **Mediterranean Fleet** is stationed in the sea of that name.

The China station extends from the Straits of Singapore to the West of Japan, and includes the China Sea and the East Indies.

The Australian station extends from 105° long. E. to 161° long. W., and from 15° N. lat. (excluding the East Indian Archipelago) to the Antarctic Ocean.

The East Indian station includes the Persian Gulf, Bay of Bengal, and Indian Ocean as far south as Madagascar.

The Cape station extends along the coast of Africa from Madagascar to Cape Blanco.

The Home Fleet and 5th Cruiser Squadron are stationed in the North Sea and Channel.

COMPARISON OF BATTLESHIPS.

HERE IS AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF BATTLESHIPS AND ARMOURED CRUISERS, GIVING THE NUMBER OF UNITS AND A COMPARISON OF POINTS.

Corrected up to December, 1908, and based on Navy League estimate of October, 1907.

Probable Order of Efficiency and Strength.	Place by No. of Units.	Place by No. of Points.	Battleships. Units.	Battleships. Points.	Armoured Cruisers. Units.	Armoured Cruisers. Points.	Total. Units.	Total. Points.
Great Britain ..	1	1	48	537	39	282	87	819
U.S.A.	2	2	28	347	15	102	43	449
Germany	4	3	91	332	11	97	33	429
Japan	5	5	15	191	16	151	31	342
France	3	4	21	250	23	117	44	367
Italy	6	6	10	114	9	62	19	176
Austria	8	8	9	81	3	14	12	95
Russia	7	7	8	96	6	39	14	135

MR. HALDANE'S ARMY SCHEME.

ITS PRINCIPLES AND ITS PROGRESS.

Mr. Haldane's scheme for the reorganisation of the British military forces embodied the following features:

(1) The organisation of a **field force of 166,000 officers and men,** of whom 66,000 would be drawn from the Regulars in active service, and 85,000 from the Regular Reserves, the remaining 15,000 being obtained in equal proportions from a new force, known as the "Special Reserve," and from the Territorial Army. The **peace strength of the British Army at home was fixed at 160,000, with a** trained reserve of 121,000.

The field force is organised **in six infantry** divisions and four cavalry brigades.

(2) The creation of a force known as the "**Special Contingent,**" or "Special Reserve," with a nominal strength of 80,000 men, recruited from the old Militia. Of the 124 Militia battalions, 74 have been attached as third or fourth battalions to the 69 regular line regiments, 27 have become extra reserve battalions, and 23 have been disbanded. **The Special Reserve are liable to foreign service**

(3) The reorganisation of the Volunteers and Yeomanry under the new title of **Territorial Army,** which is to be thus composed, when the needed number of recruits have joined:

Calvalry (Imperial Yeomanry)	26,000
Artillery	47,000
Engineers	14,000
Infantry	198,000
Other branches	27,000
	312,000

The men in this force are **not liable to foreign service, enlist for a term of four years,** and for discharge before that period has expired must give three months' notice, or pay a sum not exceeding £5, and surrender arms, accoutrements, &c.

They are organised in fourteen **infantry** divisions and fourteen mounted brigades, with a proportion of troops of other arms. The old Volunteers did not possess such a divisional organisation, and had no artillery capable of taking the field.

The number of Volunteer battalions under the scheme has been reduced from 219 to 168, and a large number of units has therefore been disbanded.

(4) For the work of administering and raising the Territorial Army, **county associations** have been formed. Each association is composed of (a) **officers from the Territorial Army** in the county nominated **by** the Army Council; (b) **representatives of the county and borough councils,** nominated by the Army Council after consultation with these bodies; (c) a **president, vice-president and chairman** nominated by the Army Council; and (d) a **secretary** and **treasurer, nominated** by the Army Council.

The **association is to provide the necessary men, clothe them,** find drill-halls and storehouses, &c., and for this purpose it will receive a grant from the Army funds. If the expenditure exceeds the receipts in any one year, **the War Office will not insist upon a cash settlement of the deficit at the end of the year; but the liability must be taken into account in the following year. The association will** have nothing to do with the training of the units, whose **financial affairs it administers. Ninety-three associations have now been formed in all the districts, and are at work** at the present time.

The **cost of the Territorial Army was originally** estimated **at £2,889,000 as** compared **with £4,431,000,** the cost **of the auxiliary forces, in the estimates of 1906–7, but to this an addition of £625,000 was afterwards made, bringing up the total amount to £3,514,000.**

The **Territorial Artillery are being armed with the old** Army field gun which **is being** converted to a quick-firer of a somewhat old-fashioned type, and with **howitzers and 4·7-in. guns of** modern pattern.

The **training** which the Territorial **Army** undergoes is, for the infantry, **forty drills** annually, of which twenty must be performed before the annual training in camp, **in the first** year, followed by ten drills in subsequent years; an annual training in camp; and **an** annual course of musketry. The **artillery** are to do forty-five drills in the first year, and twenty in each subsequent year, with an annual training in camp and one period of six days' practice with a service brigade **in four years.**

NEED FOR THE SCHEME.

Under the old conditions, the **Volunteers were not organised to take the field, as they were** without artillery and cavalry. The **units** varied in strength, one battalion being **twice** or three times the numbers of another. Further, from the conditions under which grants were earned from the War Office, it was in the interest of the commanding officers of Volunteer units **to enlist men who were not fit for the strain of war.** Thus there was in the old Volunteer force a large proportion of men who could not have been taken into the field, and whose presence was really a cause of weakness, since they made a **great figure on paper, but** must have been removed from the ranks on mobilisation. Another weakness of the Volunteer force, though this has not been removed in the new organisation, was the **want of officers,** as the actual number serving **was** some thousands below the actual needs.

In was further maintained by Mr. Haldane that in the Regular Army there were a number of superfluous units, which were not needed in his new organisation, and which could be disbanded. On the other hand, behind the Regular Army there was nothing but the Reserve, a large part of which would be exhausted on mobilisation. **The old Militia was under no obligation to serve abroad,** though actually it showed its readiness in the South African War *to* volunteer for foreign service. The Special Reserve which has replaced it will be liable to foreign service, and can be counted upon in framing plans.

PROGRESS OF THE SCHEME.

Most of the units required for the Territorial Army have now been formed, though the strength desired has not yet been attained. Of the 312,000 men required, 188,000 had joined down to October 1st, 1908, leaving a deficiency of 124,000 men. Many of those who have entered, however, have only engaged for a year's service, as special facilities were granted to men who wished to transfer from the Volunteers. **104,000 Territorial troops went into camp for fifteen days,** and produced a very good impression on those who watched their work, the artillery, contrary to general expectations, shaping particularly well. **The men were good,** and of a robuster type than the Volunteers, and showed great zeal in their work. Difficulties have arisen in some towns, as employers have not always been willing to allow their employees in the Territorial Army to be absent for the fortnight in camp, and probably not more than a week's training in camp will be generally practicable.

The **date when the Territorial Army formally came into existence was April 1st, 1908,** though the King had, on October 26th, 1907, received the Lords-Lieutenants and commended to their zeal the county associations over which they were to preside.

There has been some trouble over the **funds** allotted, as the **county associations in many cases find their grants insufficient,** and have thus not been able to provide the storehouses and drill-sheds needed by the new units. This is particularly the case where the associations have to administer sparsely populated counties. There is a general consensus of opinion that if the scheme is to work really well **larger expenditure will be needed.** The outlook for the future is uncertain, as it is

DISTRIBUTION OF REGULAR ARMY (INCLUDING PERMANENT STAFF OF SPECIAL RESERVES AND TERRITORIAL FORCES).

ITEMS.	CAVALRY.			ARTILLERY.				INFANTRY (Excluding Colonial Corps).			COLONIAL AND NATIVE INDIAN CORPS.				Total.
	Number of Regiments.		All Ranks	Number of Batteries or Companies.			All Ranks	Number of Battalions.		All Ranks.	Infantry.		Artillery.	Engineers.	All Ranks
	Household.	Line.		Horse	Field.	Garrison.		Foot Guards.	Line Battalions		Battalions.	All Ranks.	All Ranks.	All Ranks.	(a)
HOME.															
Regimental Establishment	8 —	— 13	1,296 9,295	14 —	99 —	43 —	22,897 —	8 —	— 70	6,357 56,106	—	—	—	—	126,427
Depôts, Military Police, &c.	—	—	325	1	4	4	3,454	—	—	8,778					
Permanent Staff of Special Reserves and Territorial Forces	—	—	348	—	—	—	614	—	—	2,479	—	—	—	—	3,721
Total for Home	8	13	11,264	15	103	47	26,965	8	70	73,720	—	—	—	—	130,148
COLONIES & EGYPT.															
Africa—															
South Africa	—	5	2,966	2	6	2	1,388	—	10	9,679	—	—	—	...	16,213
Mauritius	—	—	—	—	—	1	161	—	1	932	...	—	148		1,404
Sierra Leone	—	—	—	—	—	1	178	—	—	...	2	2,085	158	45	2,356
America—															
Bermuda	—	—	—	—	—	2	185	—	1	937	—	—	—	—	1,307
Jamaica	—	—	—	—	—	1	246	—	—	—	1	635	—	—	1,049
Asia—															
Ceylon	—	—	—	—	—	1	210	—	—	...	1	846	—	—	1,175
Straits Settlements	—	—	—	—	—	2	257	—	1	932	1	846	120	—	2,339
Hong Kong	—	—	—	—	—	3	736	—	1	932	2	1,784	360	50	4,229
North China	—	—	—	—	—	—	52	—	1	938	1	926	—	—	1,992
Mediterranean—															
Gibraltar	—	—	—	—	—	7	1,276	—	2	1,885	—	—	—	—	3,817
Malta (including Crete)	—	—	—	—	—	8	1,566	—	5	4,750	—	—	448	—	7,539
Cyprus	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	1/8	115	—	—	—	—	123
Egypt	—	1	655	1	—	1	316	— 1	3 7/8 —	3,627 736	—	—	—	—	5,719
Miscellaneous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	52
Total for Colonies and Egypt	—	6	3,621	3	6	29	6,571	1	26	25,453	8	7,122	1,234	95	49,514
Total, Home and Colonial Establishment	8	19	14,885	18	109	76	33,536	9	96	99,173	8	7,122	1,234	95	179,662
INDIA	—	9	5,643	11	45	36	15,828	—	52	53,740	—	—	—	—	76,155
Total	8	28	20,528	29	154	112	49,364	9	148	152,913	8	7,122	1,234	95	255,817

(a) Includes Engineers, Army Service Corps, &c., not

impossible to foretell whether men will generally re-engage after a year's service, and whether officers will come forward in sufficient number. Up to date, the force is short of officers, and in this direction is little better off than the Volunteers. By the middle of the present year, however, it will be possible to judge whether Mr. Haldane has succeeded or failed.

One point must be borne in mind in judging the scheme. The **strength of the Regular Army has been very heavily reduced**, so that it is now **no greater than before the South African War when the Army was admittedly proved too weak**.

TERRITORIAL ARMY.

Mr. Haldane, on October 16th, gave the following figures regarding the Territorial Army:

Strength on July 31st	184,000
Strength to-day .. .. .. over	200,000
Number who went to camp.. ..	173,500
In camp for fifteen days	104,500

STRENGTH OF THE ARMY.

The following are the official figures for the **strength of the Regular Army and the various auxiliary and Colonial forces under the control of the British War Office** in 1908–9:

The official figures for the various arms of the Regular Army are as shown in table on previous page (it will be noticed that the total does not agree with the official totals given below).

Description.	Establishment.	Actual Strength. Latest Returns.
Regular forces	169,114	161,302
Colonial and Native Indian Corps	8,451	9,251
Army Reserve	142,000	128,984
Special Reserves	*80,850	—
Militia, United Kingdom ..	—	90,138
Militia Reserve	2,000	2,321
Militia, Channel Islands ..	3,163	2,921
Militia, Malta and Bermuda	2,862	2,349
Territorial Force (including Staff).	†314,063	
Imperial Yoemanry .. .	952	25,812
Volunteers		239,876
Total Home and Colonies .	723,455	662,954
Regular Forces in India .	76,155	76,091
	799,610	739,045

* Actual strength, October 1st, 61,291.
† Actual strength, October 1st, 188,871.

THE INVASION PROBLEM.

Lord Roberts severely criticised the Territorial artillery in the House of Lords on March 12th, 1908.

"I say emphatically that 196 Territorial batteries, by reason of their unsatisfactory composition, their want of proper organisation, and their lack of anything approaching to sufficient training and gun practice, would not, in spite of their numbers, be of the slightest use in the field; and not only would they not be of the slightest use, but they would be a positive danger. In making this statement, I am deeply sensible that I am taking a serious responsibility upon myself, a responsibility I most certainly would not venture to take were it not clear to me that the safety of this country depends upon the Territorial Army. The Regular Army would, in all probability, be abroad; the Navy would be doing its legitimate work of seeking out the enemy's fleets, protecting our widely scattered commerce and ensuring the safe delivery of our food supplies. It is essential, therefore, that that Army should be in all respects as efficient as it is possible for a citizen army to become. If ever the country is invaded, it will be by a surprise invasion, in face of which the Territorial artillery would be useless."

To this Mr. Haldane replied (March 19th), saying:

"I really cannot follow Lord Roberts's **reasoning** on the broad question of military **organisation.** He speaks of preparation for a **surprise attack as if the plan was that the Territorial Army was organised to resist the surprise attack—as if we were contemplating a situation when all the Regular troops should be away, and as if we had no Navy which could resist invasion, and the Territorial Force was to be brought face to face with I know not how large a Continental force suddenly descending on these shores.** *If* **we relied on the Territorial Force to deal with that situation, I agree that** we should rely on very little. I have never put that forward. **In the case of such a bolt from the blue we should have, I hope, the whole Expeditionary Force, especially those actually serving with the colours, at our back.**

"I have never for a moment contemplated that we should be left in such a situation with no protection from the Navy and no protection from the Regular Army; and I am the more puzzled with Lord Roberts's speech because I cannot but remember that only three years ago, in 1905, he was a member of the Defence Committee which gave certain advice which the leader of the Opposition gave to this House. I understand his speech was based on calculations made by the Defence Committee—he told us so at the time—and **the Defence Committee, of which Lord Roberts was a member, told us that only a raid of 5,000 men, or two raids of 5,000 men, were to be protected against.** It really detracts from the authority of however eminent an expert if views so totally and diametrically opposite are put forward, and the country asked to accept both of them within so short a period.

"I believe myself that the figure is too low. I should not like to pin myself to the proposition that not more than 5,000 men could be landed. The sea is wide, accidents do happen, and for a matter of security you must make better provision than would be made by merely reducing the risk to that level. **I agree with the principle that you should rely on naval protection against any large invasion, that you should rely on the old British policy of faith in transports, and keep at home a second line force large enough to ensure that, if the enemy should bring his troops in sufficiently large numbers, he would require transports of such magnitude that the Navy would have a target to hit.**"

IN CASE OF INVASION.

WHAT THE NAVY AND ARMY WOULD DO.

In the event of the fact becoming known **that a** Power with a great army and a strong navy meditated the invasion of England, the following **precautions** would, or should, be taken :

(1) The whole strength of the British Fleet would be concentrated in the waters over **which** the invading expedition might be expected to make its voyage. The three main **fleets** in British waters are the Channel, Home, **and** Atlantic, and they would presumably be **assembled** under one command. The concentration **effected**, if the enemy had not in the meantime slipped out, the British naval forces would be moved up to his ports, and could blockade them.

The first line would be held by the **destroyers, which would close in and watch the hostile ports night and day,** provided always that they **were superior** in numbers to the hostile force **of destroyers.** Such tactics would involve a **prolonged and harassing blockade,** and would demand a very large margin of force, as the fuel carried by each destroyer is comparatively small, and she could only remain three or four **days** off a hostile port without being compelled **to return** to some base to refill her bunkers with **coal or** her tanks with oil. If the weather were **fine,** however, tanks might be refilled with oil **in** the open sea.

The destroyers would be **supported by flotillas of submarines and fast scouts or cruisers,** with behind them, again, powerful armoured **cruisers** to drive off any of the enemy's large **ships** that might come out. The **British battleship fleet** would probably be held in a British port, and be kept **informed of the enemy's movements by wireless telegraphy.** If the enemy moved out, the battleships would put **to sea** to meet him, and a decisive action might **be** fought.

To close the hostile ports, **mechanical mines** would probably be laid by the British destroyers **and** mine-ships in the channels giving access **to them.** To remove such mines would be a **task** requiring some considerable time. It **took** the Russians several hours whenever they **attempted** a sortie from Port Arthur.

(2) The **military precautions** would be as follows :

(a) **The regular Army in the United Kingdom would be mobilised and concentrated** in some **central** position, from which it could best **resist** the invaders in the event of their being **able to land.** The Reservists would be enrolled, **the** artillery and transport fully horsed, and the troops constantly practised and exercised.

(b) The **Territorial Army would be called out for special training, and would probably be distributed between three or four points along** the coast threatened, at railway junctions **where** the regular forces could be readily brought up to give it support when the enemy **had** landed.

(c) The **coast fortifications** would be fully **manned,** and kept ready night and day.

(d) Probably also **light works, armed with a few field guns or quick-firers, would be thrown up to command the points at which a landing would be most to be feared.** Such works would delay the disembarkation **of a force,** and might even prevent it **altogether.**

The problem of landing in the face of **armed** opposition is a very serious one, and, **provided the country was on the alert and its Navy in command of the sea,** would be impossible **of** solution. The real **danger is of an unexpected attack,** preceded by the defeat of one or **more** of the British fleets, and by the enemy's **naval** forces obtaining a temporary or **permanent** command of the sea.

If there were danger of invasion, **steps would** have to be taken **to watch aliens and undesirables,** and, if necessary, to expel them. **When** Great Britain had last to fear the arrival of **an** invading army, a very severe Act was **passed,** giving the Government all the powers **required,** and all aliens who seemed suspicious **or** dangerous were kept under observation **or** expelled. In foreign countries the police **have** to be informed of the presence of any **stranger** or foreigner, and the citizen carries **papers, so** that he can readily be identified. In **England** such police regulations do not exist, and **there** are few means of identifying a questionable individual, as there are no official **papers** proving the identity.

The **total military force** which could **be** collected, if danger of invasion arose to-morrow, would be about 120,000 regulars with **the** colours, and another 128,000 in the reserves, with 600 guns. The **mobilisation of this force, however, would take some weeks,** and it is not obvious how the horses needed by it would be obtained, as there is a deficiency in the British Isles of horses fit for military service. **The strength of the Special Reserve and the Territorial Army** at present available might **be** placed at 260,000 men, with some 300 **guns.** So that the total strength would be over 500,000 men and 900 guns.

In the Napoleonic War, however, when invasion was feared, a far larger force was **prepared** and exercised, and, by enforcing the Ballot Act, the Militia and Volunteers of that period were raised to a most imposing numerical strength. **There were 700,000 men under arms in the country at the date of Trafalgar,** though of these only a small proportion were **regulars.**

Some idea of the steps which would be taken can be gained from the precautions then thought necessary. Arrangements were **made** for removing the Royal Family to the West **of** England. **King George III. was to have gone to Worcester,** and the bullion from the Bank **of** England was to have been transferred **with** him. **Orders were given to the people** in the **the** district where the enemy landed to **drive off all cattle and destroy all supplies. The** British light and irregular troops were to **delay** the advance of the invading army as far **as** possible, and thus to give time for the **main** British forces to assemble and give battle.

In London, instructions were issued **as to preparing barricades and watching all suspicious strangers. Bonfires** were prepared on all **the** eminences near the sea, and linked up by **other** beacon fires with the inland districts, **so as to** give the signal that the French **had landed.** False alarms were not uncommon.

PROGRESS OF THE GREAT ARMIES

IN FRANCE, GERMANY, AUSTRIA, U.S.A., AUSTRALIA.

Military matters have received an unusual amount even of public attention during the year 1908. The progress and general position of the various armies of the world are here outlined.

THE UNITED STATES.

A change of enormous importance was made almost unobserved in the military position of the United States on the signing of the **new Militia Law** by President Roosevelt in May, 1908. This merges **the Militia, or National Guard, of the various States in the Army, and renders every militiaman or volunteer liable to service in time of war, within or without the borders of the United States.**

THE FRENCH ARMY.

The **French manœuvres** were held in September, and were divided into **two periods.** In the first, September 9th to 12th, there were **manœuvres of corps against corps,** upon the Loire. In the second, from September 13th to 18th, there were **manœuvres of army against army.**

The troops engaged in the second portion of the manœuvres were the A, or Red Army, under General Trémeau, consisting of the 8th and 9th, Corps with the 6th and 5th Cavalry Divisions; and the B, or White Army, under General Millet, consisting of the 5th and 11th Corps, with the 1st Division of the Colonial Infantry. The idea of the manœuvres was that B was part of a large army which had crossed the Loire, and move south to the Cher, and which was to be resisted by the A troops. In general control of the manœuvres was the **French Generalissimo General de Lacroix,** while General Picquart, Minister of War, was also present.

The **manœuvres,** in the opinion of competent witnesses, were **remarkable in every way.** The French **infantry marched superbly,** the 31st Regiment, for example, covering twenty-five miles a day, day after day, without a single man on the sick-list. They displayed great dash and endurance, and produced the best impression. No less excellent was the **performance of the artillery,** which was perfectly handled. Part of the artillerymen were supplied with a **new chrome-steel helmet,** which is of special value, as it gives protection against shell splinters. It proved very satisfactory, and was not too hot. The **tactics of the cavalry were good,** and the charges made were brilliantly executed, though there was a general impression that the cuirasses of the cuirassiers are *too* heavy for modern war, and must be reduced in weight. But the most satisfactory feature was the **skill displayed by the French generals, who also showed great initiative and energy.** Remembering that in 1870 France was beaten mainly because of the incompetence of her generals, and that Moltke declared it would take her years to train good leaders, her progress in this direction is an encouraging sign to Frenchmen.

A point which has attracted attention as the result of the manœuvres is the **weakness in point of numbers of the French Artillery. It possesses, all told, only 1,920 guns, whereas the German strength is 3,444 guns, or nearly two to one. The French battery has only four guns, whereas the German battery has six, and there are more German batteries.** It seems to be generally held in France that the **artillery ought to be strengthened, but there are** two difficulties in the way: (1) **the want of men,** the French population being to the German as 2 to 3; and (2) the **enormous cost of an increase,** which would add **millions** to the annual army estimates.

THE GERMAN ARMY.

The annual **manœuvres** of 1908 **took place** during September in Alsace-Lorraine, **in close** proximity to the French frontier. **Two** corps were engaged, the 15th **(Strassburg)** under General von Prittwitz und Gaffron, and the 16th (Metz) under General von Gilgenheimb, with, in addition, two Bavarian brigades, bringing up the total force to **70,000 men.** A mimic encounter between these two corps was fought near the forest of St. Avold, the 15th Corps being attacked by the 16th. The battle culminated in a great charge of the 16th Corps, under the eyes of the Kaiser. According to critics present at the manœuvres, **the German Army paid little attention to the teaching of the South African campaign, and showed defective initiative and insufficient care in taking cover.** Had it been real war, the losses would have been immense. But it must be remembered that the South African struggle was in many ways exceptional in its features, and that the methods which succeeded best against the Boers may not be calculated to win success on the European terrain.

According to the French Press, the **German troops suffered severely** from the tasks imposed upon them, and **twenty-one soldiers died in hospital,** while the sanitary arrangements are stated to have broken down. On the other hand the tests of endurance imposed in the German manœuvres are much severer than those permitted in France.

A feature which attracted attention **was the excellent working of the German Staff.**

An additional regiment of cavalry and one battalion of engineers are to be added to the German Army in 1909. New **Field-Service Regulations** were **issued** to the **Army during** 1908, in which an interesting feature is the section devoted to **wireless telegraphy,** the instruments in use with the German Army being credited with a range of 60 to 120 miles, and with a speed of 400 words per hour. A new chapter, entitled "Concealment," dwells upon the importance of masking **from the** enemy the movements of troops.

THE AUSTRIAN ARMY.

The **Artillery** is being reorganised and **greatly increased.** Hitherto the Army Corps Artillery has consisted of 78 field guns and 24 howitzers, but it will henceforth consist of 180 field guns and 24 howitzers. The additional guns are already in process of issue. The annual **manœuvres** were held in September by the 4th, 5th, and 13th army corps, with four reserve infantry divisions, the total engaged being about 90,000 men.

In the past, the National Guard, or Militia, was a force very similar to the British Volunteers or Territorial Army, and was not liable to foreign service. No troublesome mustering-in formalities have to be employed when war breaks out; but the President has only to issue a simple order for foreign service to the Militia. The strength of the force before the change was 105,000 officers and men. But in the event of war all the able-bodied manhood can be called upon to take their place in the fighting ranks.

AUSTRALIA'S ARMY

A Bill imposing compulsory training and compulsory service in the event of war upon all able-bodied males was submitted in September to the Federal Parliament. By this Bill every male Australian must hereafter undergo military training, from 12 to 18 in Cadet Corps or Senior Cadets, and from 18 to 26 in the National Guard. The period of training in the National Guard will be eighteen days annually, which may be curtailed. The members of the National Guard will be organised in regiments and brigades; all units will be formed on the territorial system, and trained in their own district. Drill will be simplified as far as possible, so as to teach only the essentials needed for fighting. The reason for the measure was explained to be that the voluntary system of recruiting had been tried and had broken down, only a small fraction of Australians enlisting in the various forces.

The Bill will provide 214,000 trained men of from 18 to 26 (assuming that, of the 40,000 Australians who annually reach the age of 18, 27,000 are fit for military service), or about 150,000 fit to take the field, with enormous reserves. It is a remarkable sign of Australian patriotism that it has been generally welcomed by the Australian public. It does not apply to Australian males who have already reached the age of 18.

PRICE OF WAR.

Mr. Lloyd-George, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, gives these figures showing the estimated South African War Debt outstanding at the end of several years, and also the estimated interest payable thereon. The year ends March 31st.

Year.	Estimated War Debt Outstanding.	Estimated Interest Payable Thereon.
		£
1903	159,000,000	4,328,000
1904	153,243,000	4,074,000
1905	151,466,000	3,992,000
1906	144,077,000	3,735,000
1907	133,206,000	3,421,000
1908	117,049,000	3,017,000

ARMIES OF THE LEADING POWERS.

THE NUMBER OF MEN, GUNS, AND EXPENDITURE OF THE ARMIES OF THE CHIEF POWERS IS GIVEN IN THE FOLLOWING TABLE:

Nation.	Peace Footing.	‡War Footing.	‡Guns (Approximate No.).	Military Expenditure.
				Million £
Austria	380,800	2,500,000	2,000	21·0
Belgium	49,800	188,000	204	2·2
Bulgaria	52,500	375,000	400	2·1
China	150,000 trained men.			5·0
Denmark	13,750	66,000	96	·7
France and Algeria	604,000	4,000,000	1,920	33·0
Great Britain	252,000†	355,000†	650(?)	27·4
India	150,000*	200,000*	None.	20·0
Germany	619,000	5,000,000	3,444	44·4
Greece	20,000	100,000	120	·8
Holland	41,000	150,000	120	2·3
Italy	271,000	3,000,000	1,726	11·0
Japan	240,000	1,500,000	2,000	10·7
Roumania	65,000	350,000	400	2·0
Russia	1,200,000	4,500,000	3,000	39·0
Spain	104,000	500,000	408	6·0
Sweden	61,000	520,000	500	2·4
Switzerland	21,000	270,000	450	1·8
Turkey	300,000	1,000,000	1,600	5·0(?)
United States	83,000†	83,000†	120	19·0

† Regulars only. * Native troops only.

‡No official figures are published for the war strength of the Great Powers or the number of guns which can be mobilised. The figures in these columns are estimates in most cases.

CALENDAR FOR 1909

	JANUARY.	FEBRUARY.	MARCH.	APRIL.
S	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25
M	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26
Tu	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27
W	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28
Th	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29
F	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30
S	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24

	MAY.	JUNE.	JULY.	AUGUST.
S	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29
M	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30
Tu	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24 31
W	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25
Th	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26
F	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27
S	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28

	SEPTEMBER.	OCTOBER.	NOVEMBER.	DECEMBER.
S	5 12 19 26	3 10 17 24 31	7 14 21 28	5 12 19 26
M	6 13 20 27	4 11 18 25	1 8 15 22 29	6 13 20 27
Tu	7 14 21 28	5 12 19 26	2 9 16 23 30	7 14 21 28
W	1 8 15 22 29	6 13 20 27	3 10 17 24	1 8 15 22 29
Th	2 9 16 23 30	7 14 21 28	4 11 18 25	2 9 16 23 30
F	3 10 17 24	1 8 15 22 29	5 12 19 26	3 10 17 24 31
S	4 11 18 25	2 9 16 23 30	6 13 20 27	4 11 18 25

NEW MOONS 1909

January	22.	July	17.
February	20.	August	15.
March	21.	September	14.
April	20.	October	14.
May	19.	November	13.
June	17.	December	12.

BANK HOLIDAYS 1909

Good Friday	April 9.
Easter Monday	April 12.
Whit Monday	May 31.
Bank Holiday	August 2.
Christmas day	Saturday, Dec. 25.
Boxing Day	Monday, Dec. 27.

SUN RISE AND SET 1909

January 1 ..	8.8	4.0
February 1 ..	7.42	4.48
March 1 ..	6.49	5.39
April 1	5.40	6.31
May 1	4.36	7.21
June 1	3.52	8.5
July 1	3.49	8.18
August 1 ..	4.24	7.46
September 1	5.13	6.44
October 1 ..	6.1	5.36
November 1	6.54	4.31
December 1	7.45	3.52

SPECIAL DAYS IN 1909

January	10	1st Sunday after Epiphany.
February	14	Valentine Day.
February	7	Septuagesima Sunday.
February	14	Sexagesima.
February	23	Shrove Tuesday.
February	24	Ash Wednesday.
February	28	1st Sunday in Lent.
April	4	Palm Sunday.
April	11	Easter Sunday.
May	16	Rogation Sunday.
May	20	Ascension Day.
May	30	Whit Sunday.
June	6	Trinity Sunday.
June	13	1st Sunday after Trinity.
June	24	Longest Day.
November	1	All Saints' Day.
November	2	All Souls' Day.
November	28	1st Sunday in Advent.
December	26	1st Sunday after Xmas.
December	28	Innocents' Day.

Boots and Shoes.
"Bective" Boot Factory, 19-23, Bethnal Green Rd., E.
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Ransomes, Sims, & Jefferies, Ltd., Orwell Works, Ipswich.

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Aberystwyth: Waterloo Hydro Hotel.
Birmingham: Grand Hotel.
Co. Galway: Renvyle House Hotel, Renvyle.
Harrogate Cairn Hydropathic Co.
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Norwich Union Life Office, Dept. S, Norwich Union Life Office, Norwich.
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Further names and Addresses of business firms will be found on pages xl—xlii.

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